

ON THE
DYSENTERIES OF INDIA

With a chapter on
Secondary Streptococcal Infections and Sprue

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Secondary Streptococcal Infections and Sprue

BY
HUGH W. ACTON, LIEUT.-COL. I.M.S.

Pr f f P th l gy and Bact riol gy
C l lta Sch ol f T p l M d a d Hyg

AND

R. KNOWLES, LIEUT.-COL. I.M.S.

F fever f P l l gy
Calcutta Sch ol f T p l M d n d Hyg ns

*And it was so that the father of Publius lay sick of
fever and dysentery —Acts XXVIII 8 (R V)*

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To

LEONARD ROGERS,

A pioneer in the study of the Dysenteries of
India and the founder of the Calcutta School
of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene

This Book is Dedicated

PREFACE

OUR experience of teaching Indian post graduate students during the last seven years is that there is hardly any subject about which they are so ignorant as that of dysentery. It is clear that the tremendous advances in our knowledge of the subject which have resulted from the work of the War and post War years have not as yet been generally incorporated in the teaching of medicine in India and the old and erroneous belief that most of the dysentery of India is of amoebic origin is still generally held.

In order to try and present to the medical profession in this country a general *resumé* of the present day knowledge of the subject accordingly we published a small paper covered brochure on it in 1924. The edition of this was exhausted early in 1927. In October 1927 the junior author was asked to deliver the Burdwan Lectures early in 1928 at the Ronaldshay Medical School Burdwan Bengal and chose the dysenteries of India as his subject. The preparation of these lectures afforded us a most welcome opportunity to entirely re-write our previous publication and to expand it into the present volume. We trust that in the present volume we have succeeded in presenting to the medical practitioner in India a comprehensive yet brief account of the subject in all its phases.

Frankly this book is a compilation and chiefly taken from other sources. We have borrowed very largely and extensively and desire to make the fullest acknowledgment of having done so. Amongst other sources we have borrowed from Manson Bahr and Marrian Perri's article on bacillary dysentery in Byam and Archibald's *Practice of Medicine in the Tropics* from Dobell and Low's articles on amebiasis and on balantidiosis in the same volume from Manson Bahr's very fine article on sprue in Vol. III of the same work from Dobell's *Amoeba living in Man* from Fletcher and Jepps *Dysentery in the Federated Malay*

States from Andrewes account of bacillary dysentery, and that of amebic dysentery by Dobell and Harvey in *History of the Great War, Medical Services, Pathology* from Manson Bahr's article on dysentery in *History of the Great War, Medical Services Diseases of the War* To these and to other authors from whom we have borrowed we owe an apology we trust that they will realize that our motive has been the desire to quote from authoritative and unimpeachable sources, for there has been far too much erroneous teaching on the subject in the past in India.

If we have committed piracy frankly in the text, we have done even worse with regard to the illustrations. It may surprise our readers that working as we are in Calcutta, we have been unable to provide original illustrations to this book. But the patients admitted to the Carmichael Hospital for Tropical Diseases attached to the Calcutta School of Tropical Medicine are for the most part middle class Bengalis deaths from dysentery are very rare indeed among them and post mortem examinations impossible to secure owing to the refusal of relatives.

Accordingly we again had resort to the best sources of which we knew. We owe a debt of gratitude to the firm of Johann Ambrosius Barth of Leipzig for their very generous permission to reproduce the figures in Plates I and II which are taken from the splendid *Atlas Tropischer Darmkrankheiten* by Dr. Gustav Baermann and Dr. Otto Eckersdorff published by them in 1913. In reproducing these plates we have had to reduce the originals very considerably. Above all we are indebted to Dr. William Fletcher M.D. (Camb.) formerly of the Institute for Medical Research, Kuala Lumpur and now Secretary to the Colonial Medical Research Committee for his immeasurable kindness in permitting us to reproduce illustrations from the splendid plates by himself and Miss Jepps in *Dysentery in the Federated Malay States*, published in 1924 also to Dr. A. Neave Kingsbury, Director of the Kuala Lumpur Institute for his permission as Director of that Institute to borrow from its publications. Also to Messrs. John Bale Sons and Danielsson for the loan of blocks. Further our most grateful thanks in the same matter are also due to Mr. Clifford Dobell F.R.S. Protistologist to the Medical Research Council National Institute for Medical Research.

Hampstead London and to Messrs Bailhere Findall & Cox Our thanks are also due to Mr E H W Flemming Assistant Radiologist Carmichael Hospital for Tropical Diseases Calcutta for six of the diagrams herein reproduced

In studying the literature on the dysenteries of India it is surprising to note that almost all the work done on this subject has been that of individual and isolated workers notably Timothy Lewis and D D Cunningham in the very early days more recently Sir Leonard Rogers F P S and Lieut Col J Cunningham i m s Although dysentery is the third most important cause of mortality in India yet the disease has never been the subject of any organised research commission It is probably this fact which is chiefly responsible for the backward state of knowledge of the subject by the medical profession in India If the publication of the present volume does anything to help our brother medical men in India we shall be only too gratified

CALCUTTA SCHOOL OF TROPICAL MEDICINE & HYGIENE
1st March 19 5

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CONTENTS

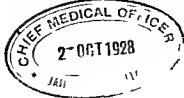
	PAGE
CHAPTER 1 Dysentery in India Morbidity and Mortality Seasonal Incidence The term dysentery Causation Relative Frequencies	I
II Acute and Subacute Bacillary Dysentery Ætiology Pathology and Symptoms Acute and Subacute Amœbic Dysentery Ætiology Pathology and Symptoms Balantidial Dysentery Mixed Infections	23
III The Diagnosis of Dysentery Use of the Sigmoidoscope Laboratory Examination of Dysenteric Stools The Morphology of <i>Entamœba histolytica</i> and of <i>Balantidium coli</i>	43
IV The Bacteriology of Bacillary Dysentery	64
V The Treatment of Acute Bacillary and of Acute Amœbic Dysentery	89
VI Chronic Bacillary Dysentery and the Bacillary Carrier	109
VII Chronic Amœbiasis and the <i>Entamœba histolytica</i> Carrier (Appendix Table The Morphology of the Human Entamœbe)	134
VIII Streptococcal Infections Secondary to Bacillary Dysentery Sprue The Asthenic Diarrhoea of Indians	143
IX Prophylaxis against Dysentery	154
REFERENCES	163
INDEX	171

COLOUR PLATES

		PAGE
PLATE I	The lesions of acute bacillary and acute amoebic dysentery	facing 26
II	The lesions of amoebic dysentery	36
III	The microscopic appearances of the stool in amoebic dysentery and in bacillary dysentery respectively	50
IV	Cysts of the chief intestinal protozoa of man as seen in a saline emulsion	139
V	Cysts of the chief intestinal protozoa of man as seen in an iodine emulsion	134

ILLUSTRATIONS

		PAGE
FIG I	Admissions for dysentery for six years British and Indian armies and jails	14
2	Rainfall admissions and death from dysentery and diarrhoea Pangoon 1927	16
3	Bacillary dysentery Shiga's bacillus Destruction of mucous membrane	
4	Acute bacillary dysentery Shiga's bacillus Ascending colon with black necrosis	
5	Diphtheroid membrane in bacillary dysentery	23
6	Necrosis of mucous membrane Infection with Flexner's bacillus	
7	Amoebic dysentery Dyak's hair sloughs and ulcers in transverse colon	
8	Amoebic dysentery Incipient and advanced lesions	
9	Amoebic dysentery Sea anemone ulcers	37
10	Amoebic dysentery Seaweed sloughs Ascending colon	
11	Amoebic dysentery Small ulcers in rectum and anus	
12	The distribution of amoebic lesions in the appendix colon and rectum	38
13	Charcot-Leyden crystal	
14	Vegetative <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> in fresh state	52



CHAPTER I

Dysentery in India Morbidity and Mortality Seasonal Incidence
The term dysentery Causation Relative Frequencies

PERHAPS in no field of therapeutics in India to day is treatment more random and less satisfactory than in the treatment of dysentery—a problem which constantly faces the medical practitioner in India and whose solution cannot as yet be said to be entirely satisfactory. Yet the years of the Great War and the post war years have seen so many additions to our knowledge of the subject that it is time that these lessons were incorporated in the general body of medical practice in India. That such knowledge has not yet been properly appreciated in India is shown by the almost universal and entirely erroneous use of emetine in cases of bacillary dysentery in India—a line of treatment which may inflict irreparable damage upon the patient's cardiac mechanism but which cannot alleviate his symptoms.

The Morbidity and Mortality due to Dysentery in India

The amount of morbidity and mortality due to dysentery in India is a fact which we do not think that the medical profession in this country has as yet fully realised. In order to arrive at some approximation to the true state of affairs we have analysed the figures given in the last six available *Annual Reports of the Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India*.

Table I shows the admissions and deaths per mille for the six years 1919-1924 from dysentery, colitis and diarrhoea in (a) the British Army in India, (b) the Indian Army, (c) the jail population in India (including the Andamanians) and (d) the general civilian population (death rate only). It will be seen at once from this table how important are these diseases as a cause of morbidity: the admission rate is 40.6 per mille for the British Army, rises to 46.5 per mille for the Indian Army and in jails accounts for the very high

TABLE I

Combined dysentery colitis and diarrhoea Admissions and deaths per mille

Year	BRITISH ARMY		INDIAN ARMY		JAILS		CIVILIAN POPULATION
	Admissions	Deaths	Admissions	Deaths	Admissions	Deaths	Deaths
1910-1914	33.3	0.00	33.5	0.14			
1915	44.6	0.33	50.8	0.46			
1916	48.5	0.55	50.1	0.40			
1917	50.1	0.30	47.6	0.46			
1918	49.2	0.30	53.4	0.45			
1919	55.5	0.08	65.9	0.30			1.2
1920	48.9	0.18	49.1	0.18	89.0	3.03	0.90
1921	4.4	0.15	54.7	0.39	88.6	2.41	0.95
1922	9	0.10	38.2	0.3	0.8	4.09	0.74
1923	74.8	0.13	33.2	0.17	77.6	.45	0.77
1924	26.4	0.14	30.0	0.04	68.4	1.95	0.95
Averages	40.6	0.05	46.5	0.29	83.3	2.79	0.93

admission rate of 83.3 per mille. Mortality is relatively less important the figures being 0.25 per mille for the British Army 0.28 per mille for the Indian Army but reaching the high figure of 2.79 per mille for the jail population. In the civilian population the figure is at a fairly constant level of about 1 per mille.

Table II shows the relative importance of dysentery as a cause of death when compared with other diseases in India. If we take the figures for the different groups respectively the mortality from malaria per mille in the British Army work out at 0.48 that from respiratory diseases at 0.89 that from dysentery and diarrhoea at 0.16 that from cholera at 0.10 whilst the figure for plague—0.01—is insignificant. In other words in the British Army in India dysentery is the third most important cause of deaths and of greater importance than cholera. In the Indian Army the figures are closely parallel with the exception of deaths from respiratory diseases—chiefly pneumonia which is of very great importance in this community. The death rates are from respiratory diseases 4.02 per mille from

malaria 0.55 from dysentery and diarrhoea 0.17 from cholera 0.15 and from plague 0.10

TABLE II

Relative Mortality per mille from different diseases

	European Army	Indian Army	Jills	Civil Population	REMARKS
<i>I Malaria</i>					
1919	0.74	0.54	1.06	93	Fevers (excluding plague)
1920	0.49	0.48	1.11	0.68	
1921	0.75	0.60	0.83	19.7	
1922	0.43	0.68	1.00	15.23	
1923	0.27	0.69	1.01	15.35	
1924	0.4	0.44	1.18	* 16.69	
Averages	0.49	0.55	1.04	18.44	
<i>II Respiratory diseases (including pulmonary tuberculosis, pneumonia and other)</i>					
1919	1.40	5.77	66	1.47	
1920	0.96	5.11	6	1.40	
1921	1.13	4.61	7.1	1.33	
1922	0.77	3.37	6.3	1.0	
1923	0.43	0	6.33	1.3	
1924	0.68	3.0	6.73	1.33	
Averages	0.89	4.0	6.99	1.34	

DYSENTERIES OF INDIA

TABLE II—Contd

	European Army	Indian Army	Jails	Civil Population	REMARKS
<i>III Dysentery and Diarrhoea</i>	(Dysentery only) No diarrhoea recorded				
1919	0.08	0.19	6.05	1.02	
1920	0.16	0.13	3.0	0.97	
1921	0.15	0.31	2.41	0.95	
1922	0.08	0.21	4.51	0.4	
1923	0.13	0.13	2.45	0.7	
1924	0.14	0.04	1.95	0.95	—1
<i>Averages</i>	0.16	0.17	3.43	0.9	
<i>IV Cholera</i>					
1919	0.19	0.34	1.1	2.43	
1920	0	0.0	0.15	0.55	
1921	0.39	0.46	0.49	1.67	
1922	0.02	0.03	0.48	0.50	
1923	0	0.01	0.05	0.30	
1924	0	0.07	0.11	1.1	
<i>Averages</i>	0.10	0.15	0.41	1.14	

TABLE II—*Conold*

	European Army	Indian Army	Jails	Civil Population	REMARKS
<i>I Plague</i>					
1919	0	0 09	0 04	0 31	
1920	0	0 08	0 01	0 4	
19 1	0 01	0 05	0 05	0 29	
192	0 03	0 08	0 05	0 3	
19 3	0	0 13	0 0	0 95	
1924	0 0	0 17	0 01	1 50	
Average	0 01	0 10	0 03	0 63	

In the jail population despite every possible sanitary measure careful supervision and skilled medical attendance dysentery becomes a problem of paramount importance being the second most important cause of death among this population. The figures are for respiratory diseases 6 99 for dysentery and diarrhoea 3 43 for malaria 1 04 for cholera 0 41 and for plague 0 03. The very high figure for dysentery and diarrhoea in this community is probably due to conditions of crowding and to dysentery carriers among the jail cooks. It not infrequently happens that a given prisoner appears to be weakly when he is actually a chronic dysentery carrier. He is taken off all heavy labour and put into the cooks' gang for light work and this may lead to an outbreak of epidemic dysentery in the jail concerned.

In the general civilian population dysentery for all India is nearly as important a cause of death as cholera. The figures are for fevers—it being impossible on the records to separate the mortality from malaria from that due to other fevers—18 41 per mille from respiratory diseases 1 31—a figure which is probably well below the actual from cholera 1 11 from dysentery and diarrhoea 0 92 and from plague 0 63.

In Table II the combined figures for dysentery and diarrhoea are given since in the returns for the civilian population it is impossible to sort out the returns for diarrhoea from those for dysentery. In the British Army in India the Indian Army and the jail population who are all under skilled medical supervision however the returns are given separately and the figures are fairly reliable with regard to the different incidence for the two complaints. These returns are analysed in Table III.

DYSENTERIES OF INDIA

TABLE III
Dysentery versus Diarrhoea Admission and Death Rates per Mille

	EUROPEAN ARMY				INDIAN ARMY				JAILS			
	DYSENTERY		DIARRHOEA		DYSENTERY		DIARRHOEA		DYSENTERY		DIARRHOEA	
	Admissions	Deaths	Admissions	Deaths	Admissions	Deaths	Admissions	Deaths	Admissions	Deaths	Admissions	Deaths
1919	142	0.8	311	0	105	0.18	206	0.01	778	4.6	541	1.29
1920	101	0.16	32	0	61	0.1	149	0.01	505	2.56	335	0.67
1921	121	0.15	62	0	137	0.30	65	0.01	499	1.91	337	0.50
1922	95	0.08	108	0	85	0.18	157	0.03	578	4.09	320	0.42
1923	13	0.13	82	0	73	0.13	136	0	488	2.08	290	0.37
1924	114	0.14	110	0	65	0.04	12	0	412	1.65	272	0.07
Averages	117	0.16	198	0	68	0.16	160	0.01	543	2.85	371	0.59

A study of Table III shows that in the British and Indian armies admissions for diarrhoea are roughly about double those for dysentery 19.8 per mille as against 11.7 for the British Army 16.2 per mille as against 8.8 for the Indian Army. In jails however dysentery becomes a much more important cause of sickness than diarrhoea the admission figures being 54.5 per mille for dysentery as against 37.1 for diarrhoea. On the other hand—except in the jails—the mortality from diarrhoea as might have been expected is a very small one. There was no death from diarrhoea in the British Army during the years 1919–1924 whilst in the Indian Army the death rate from diarrhoea during these years averaged only 0.01 per mille—a quite insignificant figure. In jails however the death rates are very high that for dysentery 2.85 per mille and that for diarrhoea 0.59—an unexpectedly high figure. It will be seen at once from a general study of Table III that diarrhoea whilst a very general cause of sickness is unimportant as a cause of mortality on the other hand dysentery whilst less prevalent than diarrhoea is responsible for almost the whole of the mortality due to both causes. Further many cases of severe diarrhoea are in reality due to dysenteric infections—infections with the bacillus of Flexner or with *Shigella histolytica* chiefly.

From a general study of Tables I, II and III the conclusion is inevitable that dysentery is a most important cause of both morbidity and mortality in India. In order of importance in the mortality rate of India malaria clearly comes first and foremost respiratory diseases including pneumonia and pulmonary tuberculosis second whilst cholera and dysentery are almost equally placed for the third and fourth places and both are much more important for all India than plague.

Even this conclusion however does not represent the true state of affairs for dysentery is often a terminal fatal infection in persons suffering from chronic malarial cachexia kala-azar pulmonary tuberculosis or other devitalising diseases and such deaths are returned as due to the primary disease whereas the real factor which kills is the secondary dysentery. From Table II we obtain a general dysentery death rate for the civilian population of 0.93 per mille. On a general population of 320 millions this would represent approximately 297,600 deaths a year from dysentery in India. It is probably not an exaggeration to state that dysentery kills from 300,000 to 350,000 persons a year in India. Yet the disease has never been the subject of any organised Commission of enquiry in India and since the days of Timothy Lewis and D. D. Cunningham in Calcutta in 1840–71 the research work carried out on the dysenterias of India has always been that of isolated and individual workers. There has long existed a large anti-plague organisation in India whilst at present an adequate organisation against malaria in India is being gradually built up. The question of cholera has been taken in hand yet respiratory diseases and dysentery are Indian problems of at least as great importance to India as cholera and plague. And the neglect

of the subject of dysentery in India is responsible for the want of knowledge with regard to the disease among the general medical profession in this country

Dysentery and the Social Strata

If dysentery is a very important factor in the general mortality in India it is of even greater importance in the general morbidity rate. And here there becomes clear a very close relationship between the mortality due to dysentery and the social status of the patients concerned.

Since the opening of the Carmichael Hospital for Tropical Diseases in Calcutta in 1921 the European private cabins in that institution have been filled by a long series of well to do European patients suffering from chronic and relapsing dysentery—usually due to an infection with the bacillus of Flexner more rarely to chronic amoebic infection. Chronic and relapsing dysentery we believe to be a matter of very serious concern to the large European business firms in Calcutta. Very few deaths occur among the European community of Calcutta from dysentery but the disease causes a tremendous amount of sickness in that community; it is responsible for much invalidism and for repeated and often prolonged absences from duty. Our experience of the last six years leads us to believe that chronic dysenteric infection is a very important cause of sickness among the general European community in India.

The figures in Table III afford a means of measuring the relative case mortality from dysentery in different communities. Thus for the British Army in India where conditions of housing, diet and sanitation are all good the admission rate is 11.7 per mille from dysentery and the death rate 0.16 giving a case mortality rate of 1.4 per cent. In the Indian Army where conditions are good but perhaps not quite so good as in the British Army the figures are admission rate 8.8 per mille mortality rate 0.16 case mortality 1.8 per cent. In jails where in general sanitary and dieting conditions are good but where the population is drawn from a low social class and where crowding is prevalent the figures are admission rate 54.3 per mille mortality rate 2.85 case mortality 5.3 per cent. It is clear that in jails dysentery is much more prevalent, is much more fatal and is a far greater cause of mortality than it is among the British and Indian armies in India. Conditions for the general civilian population are probably intermediate between those for the Army and the jail population respectively.

A very instructive study of the relationship of poverty and similar factors to the mortality from dysentery is that given by Fletcher and Jepps (1924) from the Kuala Lumpur Institute for Medical Research. Malaya is a country of immigrants and whilst the indigenous Malay is comparatively free from dysentery, the immigrant Tamil and Chinese labourers suffer from it very severely. Poverty is the chief factor in the prevalence of fatal dysentery in the Malay States and one of the principal causes of poverty is malaria. Numbers of the Tamils who died of

dysentery at the District Hospital had left the rubber estates where they had been employed because of malaria. Subsequently they had wandered about the country living on what they could get from begging until they developed dysentery as a result of want and exposure and either found their way to a government hospital or were sent to the home for decrepit Indians by the Controller of Labour. When dysentery is added to privation or disease recovery is a still more difficult matter and if a man's large intestine has been damaged to such an extent that there is little or no mucous membrane remaining complete recovery is impossible. Even when sufficient food can be obtained the whole digestive apparatus is in such a weakened state that a return to normal diet means disaster and it is not uncommon for a hearty meal to bring on a fatal relapse. The average weight of healthy Tamil labourers was just under 112 lb. whilst the average weight of 105 adult Tamils who died from bacillary dysentery was only 76 lb. or 69 per cent of their normal weight.

The same authors record that during three consecutive years there were only 2 deaths from dysentery amongst a population of some 5,000 Europeans living in the Malay States. Amongst the general population for the same period there was an average of 10 deaths from dysentery. At the General Hospital in Kuala Lumpur a small fee is charged for admission to the third class wards and here the mortality amongst 1,678 dysentery patients admitted during five years was 17 per cent. on the other hand in the District Hospital in the same town where the patients are in poorer circumstances and pay nothing, the case mortality from dysentery during the same year was no less than 36 per cent.

The Seasonal Incidence of Dysentery

With regard to the geographical incidence of dysentery in India but little needs to be said. The disease is prevalent all over the peninsula in every city, town, village and hamlet. Possibly its incidence in hill stations is less than in the plains but the very common hill diarrhoea which is so prevalent in hill stations—in our experience—is due to infection with the bacillus of Flexner. The junior author has seen cases of acute Shiga bacillus infection in Shillong but they were all of very acute type and accompanied by the passage of an enormous number of stools containing blood and mucus.

It is a well known fact that the incidence of dysentery in India is much greater during the rainy season than at any other time of the year. This is well brought out in Table IV and Fig. 1. It shows the admissions for dysentery (only and exclusive of diarrhoea) for the British Army in India, the Indian Army and the jail population month by month for the six years 1919–24, the figures which are combined together being taken from the *Annual Reports of the Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India*. (The figures for the general civilian population of course are not available.)

TABLE IV

Dysentery Admissions by Months Army and Jails 1919-1924

1919				
Month	British Army	Indian Army	Jails	TOTALS
January	64	109	6.7	890
February	61	13.	61.	805
March	48	16.	695	90°
April	53	° 1	834	905
May	80	181	80	1 063
June	68	°03	867	1 138
July	90	°07	1 . 6	1 573
August	99	.49	1 088	1 436
September	°,	.60	8 3	1 178
October	57	° 7	800	1 084
November	57	. 9	811	1 097
December	°6	134	07	867

19.0

Month	British Army	Indian Army	Jails	TOTALS
January	0	69	505	594
February	8	101	3.6	605
March	.0	63	404	436
April	.0	83	394	506
May	50	95	419	564
June	73	6	489	624
July	73	185	6.7	915
August	84	165	748	990
September	71	166	602	8°9
October	50	139	509	708
November	°6	1°5	454	60
December	3.5	84	433	55

TABLE IV—Contd

191

Mo th	British Army	Indian Army	Jails	TOTALS
January	27	73	396	496
February	5	62	79	366
March	3	9	367	491
April	49	149	378	569
May	77	150	408	635
June	61	144	436	641
July	83	195	639	917
August	105	473	919	1497
September	87	400	742	1229
October	55	93	566	904
November	65	69	599	863
December	43	133	437	613

191

Month	British Army	Indian Army	Jails	TOTALS
January	9	0	836	935
February	41	46	506	593
March	36	64	597	687
April	45	68	434	547
May	39	117	577	733
June	39	66	647	752
July	74	116	831	1021
August	80	145	783	1008
September	65	191	644	900
October	45	165	597	807
November	45	116	565	726
December	35	107	499	641

TABLE IV

Dysentery Admissions by Months Army and Jails 1919-1924

1919				
Month	British Army	Indian Army	Jails	TOTALS
January	64	199	6 7	890
February	61	13	61	805
March	49	16	605	902
April	53	2 1	834	905
May	80	181	50	1 063
June	68	203	867	1 138
July	90	207	1 2 6	1 573
August	99	249	1 088	1 436
September	9	60	8 3	1 178
October	57	7	800	1 084
November	57	9	811	1 097
December	6	134	07	867
1920				
Month	British Army	Indian Army	Jails	TOTALS
January	20	69	505	594
February	28	101	3 6	505
March	29	63	404	496
April	29	83	394	506
May	60	95	419	564
June	73	6	489	624
July	3	185	65	915
August	84	168	48	990
September	71	156	602	8 9
October	60	139	509	08
November	6	125	454	605
December	35	81	433	55

TABLE IV—*Contd*

1921				
Month	British Army	Indian Army	Jails	TOTALS
January	7	73	386	466
February	5	62	279	366
March	30	9	367	406
April	49	14	376	539
May	77	160	408	635
June	61	14	436	611
July	83	138	539	760
August	105	43	919	1,067
September	57	400	742	1,209
October	6	293	556	855
November	65	68	529	662
December	43	133	437	613

1922

Month	British Army	Indian Army	Jails	TOTALS
January	3	0	836	839
February	41	46	506	593
March	36	64	597	697
April	45	66	494	605
May	39	117	577	733
June	39	66	677	782
July	4	116	631	751
August	80	146	783	1,009
September	65	191	614	870
October	45	165	597	807
November	45	116	565	726
December	35	107	499	641

TABLE IV—*Concl'd*

19 3				
Month	British Army	Indian Army	Jails	TOTALS
January	4	64	384	449
February	34	46	330	410
March	31	32	401	464
April	49	66	413	528
May	43	118	440	601
June	58	71	653	782
July	81	60	638	779
August	167	156	117	1 100
September	1 6	143	709	948
October	86	106	611	803
November	85	104	494	684
December	47	9	411	537

19 4				
Month	British Army	Indian Army	Jails	TOTALS
January	41	6	395	442
February	9	—	66	311
March	52	5	— 8	342
April	30	76	3	483
May	5	49	413	514
June	47	46	410	533
July	59	99	6 0	7 8
August	86	116	599	801
September	93	98	530	721
October	71	86	407	664
November	7	86	456	619
December	36	86	350	472

Fig 1 shows in each graph without exception a very steep rise in incidence during the monsoon period—July to October—with a peak which is in July in 1919 and in August in 1920 1921 1922 1923 and 1924. A curious feature of these graphs is the apparent tendency for the total incidence to be greater in alternate years but the very high incidence of dysentery in 1919 may perhaps be associated with the return of dysentery carriers from the war areas after the termination of the Great War.

We believe that four chief factors are concerned in these graphs viz (a) a more or less constant level of new infections with *Entamoeba histolytica* all the year round. It is possible that amœbic infections may be more prevalent during the hot weather when the infective cysts may be blown about and disseminated by dust but taking our general laboratory findings in Calcutta we are accustomed to find amœbic infections at all seasons of the year. (b) A more or less constant level of fresh infections with the bacillus of Flexner during the period November to June during which period we have isolated this bacillus in cases observed in all these months. (c) A sudden and marked increase in the number of fresh Flexner bacillus infections during the period of the monsoon which is the chief—if not the only—factor causing the steep rise of the curve in July to October. These infections are presumably water borne and the rise is shown alike in the figures for the British Army the Indian Army and the jail population. (d) In some of the graphs especially in that for 1922 a smaller peak is shown during the cold weather in January. This rise is confined to the jail figures and is not shown in the figures for the British and Indian armies. It is probably due to small epidemics due to the bacillus of Shiga in the jail population during the cold weather.

That there is a close association between rainfall and the incidence of dysentery is a fact which has long been known. Thus Sir Leonard Rogers (1921) on investigating the statistics for jails in India concludes as follows. The minimum dysentery season occurs in the late cold weather months of January and February in relationship to the minimum temperature of the year and is commonly followed by a slight increase in the early hot weather month of March with the rise of the mean monthly temperature to between 72 and 78 F succeeded by a slight fall during the very hot months of May and June during which the mean temperature reaches to from 91 to 96 F. The main increase in the prevalence of dysentery always closely follows the onset of the heavy monsoon rains late in June and thus usually begins in July when the mean temperature has again fallen to about 80 to 82 F and reaches its maximum in August and September. This marked monsoon rise is only absent in the extreme North West Frontier of India owing to the rain bearing currents not penetrating as far as this area. Lastly the curve steadily declines with the cessation of the rains late in October and the fall of the temperature to its minimum. Further in years of excessive rainfall the dysentery curve is also unusually high and vice versa. The above data relate to all forms of dysentery.

DYSENTERIES OF INDIA

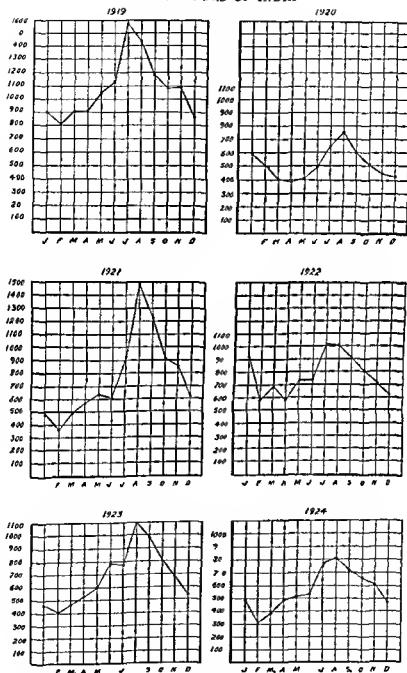
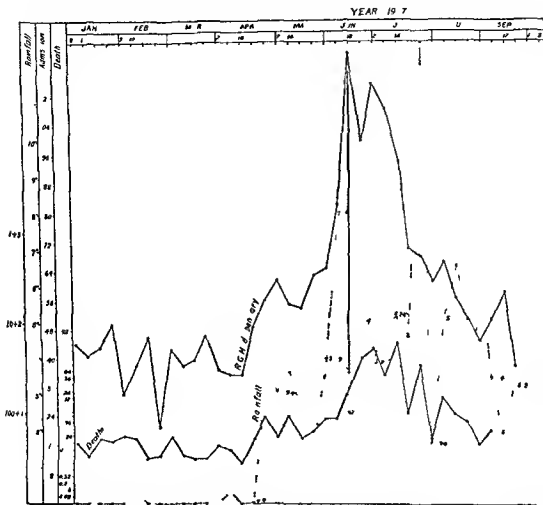


FIG 1 Chart showing admissions for dysentery by months for the six years 1919-1924 Combined figures for the British Army Indian Army and jails

combined no extensive separate figures being at present available regarding the incidence of the different types



110 Chart showing rainfall in inches, General Hospital admissions and deaths from dysentery and diarrhoea in 1917 (O. G. kindly lent by Lieut.-Col. J. Morrison 1918). The vertical line on June 18th represents the chlorination of the water supply.

A very striking example of the association of rainfall with dysentery and diarrhoea is shown in Fig. 2 for which we are indebted to Lt. Col. J. Morrison 1918.

(8) Mass infestation with *Ascaris lumbricoides* may perhaps be accompanied by diarrhoea and a muco sanguineous discharge especially in children. Again the characteristic ova will at once be found on examination of the stools. Even in cases of true dysentery *Ascaris* infection may be a complicating factor and will then require adequate treatment.

(9) *Giardia intestinalis* we believe is never a cause of dysentery whilst the infection is frequently present in persons who are in excellent health and passing normal stools. The evidence for pathogenicity on the part of this organism is exceedingly scanty though perhaps it may be responsible for diarrhoea especially in children. The characteristic cysts will be recognised on examination of the stools.

(10) The characteristic dysentery of kala azar is usually—almost always in fact—due to a secondary infection with the bacillus of Flexner and is of the nature of a true bacillary dysentery supervening in a patient whose resistance to infection has been lowered by the primary disease.

(11) Acute intestinal symptoms may develop in malaria especially in malignant tertian malaria. These may be associated with diarrhoea and melaena but never with tenesmus. The condition is really of embolic origin the capillaries of the intestine being blocked by red blood corpuscles filled with parasite schizonts. This leads to multiple capillary hæmorrhages and the presence of traces of blood in the stools. The characteristic rigors and vomiting and blood examination will lead to the true diagnosis. malaria parasites have even been found in the red blood corpuscles in such stools on appropriate staining.

(12) Cholera may occasionally simulate acute bacillary dysentery though it is far more common for a hyperacute Shiga bacillus infection to be mistaken for cholera. On microscopic examination of the stools in cholera abundant columnar epithelial cells are found whilst pus cells and blood are absent and the whole cytological picture is different from that in acute bacillary dysentery.

(13) Ptomaine poisoning or infections with the *Bacillus enteritidis* or *Bacillus artrycke* may give rise to symptoms suggestive of acute bacillary dysentery but the short duration of the disease the vomiting and the absence of blood from the stools should differentiate these states from acute bacillary dysentery. A developed *B. enteritidis* or *B. artrycke* infection resembles paratyphoid fever far more than it resembles dysentery.

(14) An infrequent but very curious condition is membranous colitis. It usually occurs in elderly women and is associated with the passage of large membranous casts of the mucous membrane of the colon. We have seen a few of these cases but have not known the symptoms to be associated either with tenesmus or the passage of blood. On microscopical examination the cast is found to consist of fibrin in the meshes of which lie innumerable pus cells. We have never been able to isolate the *Bacillus dysenteriae* from such casts or to discover *Entamoeba histolytica* infection in such patients.

We shall deal later with the very important question of the secondary infections in amoebic and bacillary dysentery but sufficient has already been said to emphasise the importance of the clinical examination of the patient in all cases of suspected dysentery including digital or sigmoidoscopic examination of the rectum as well as the microscopic and laboratory examination of the stools

The Causes of Dysentery in India

Of the causative agents of dysentery in India we can at once eliminate schistosomiasis since *Schistosoma mansoni* is not indigenous in India. *Fasciolopsis buski* is said to be very rarely a cause of dysentery but although this parasite does very occasionally occur in India (e.g. S. M. Lal 1923 and Chandler 1928 p. 731) it is sufficiently rare to constitute an exceptional curiosity. Infection with this parasite is more usually associated with severe anaemia and chronic diarrhoea than with dysentery. *Balantidium coli* infection of man occurs in India but must be considered a very rare cause of dysentery in this country. Sinton (1923) has recorded symptomless infection with this parasite in a Pathan prisoner in Lahore jail whilst we have frequently found *Balantidium coli* infection in pigs and monkeys (*Macacus rhesus*) in Calcutta and one of the sweepers at the School of Tropical Medicine in Calcutta has contracted a symptomless infection with this parasite presumably as a result of cleaning out the cages of infected monkeys. Ramsay (1923) considers *Balantidium coli* to be a common parasite of pigs and even of cattle in Cachar Assam and that man may not infrequently be infected in this area. Ifermtt, Sen Gupta and Biswas (1926) record four cases of the infection in man from Moheem, Assam, three of them associated with dysenteric symptoms; they found that stovarsol was almost a specific cure for the infection. Major Shanks mis informs us that a fatal case of balantidial dysentery occurred in the Medical College Hospital Calcutta in 1926. It is clear therefore that infection with *Balantidium coli* may be a very occasional cause of dysentery in India. Also the infection seems to occur most commonly in the tea gardens of Assam where the association of the tea coolies with pigs is closer than that of man with pigs elsewhere in India. On the other hand although we have encountered *Balantidium* infection in man in Mesopotamia without symptoms yet during many years of work in India we have not encountered this infection in man—with the solitary exception of the sweeper referred to and the infection must be a rare one in this country. Free living ciliate protozoa not infrequently come to contaminate faeces or the saline used in making up emulsions of faeces for examination and are apt to be mistaken for *Balantidium coli* by the inexperienced laboratory worker. In one case of supposed balantidial dysentery referred to us the protozoon present was not a *Balantidium* but a free living *Chilodon* accidentally present in the stool from extraneous sources.

To all intents and purposes the dysenteries of India are due to infection with the *Bacillus dysenteriae* or with *Entamaba histolytica* or—sometimes—with both *Bacillus dysenteriae* and *Entamaba histolytica* in the same patient. And of these two causes infection with the *Bacillus dysenteriae* is very much the more important for as we shall show later although intestinal infection with *Entamaba histolytica* is quite common in man in India it is only occasionally that this parasite is the actual cause of dysentery.

The term dysentery indeed is a bad one and one that we should like to see abolished, for the condition present in infections with *Bacillus dysenteriae* and *Entamaba histolytica* is rather of the general nature of a colitis invariably associated with the passage of more or less mucus in the stools but only sometimes with tenesmus and the passage of blood.

Relative Frequencies

Up to about 1916 it was commonly believed that most of the dysentery in Asiatic countries was of amoebic origin. With the onset of the Great War however dysentery became a most important problem especially for the British Empire which had armies fighting on many Eastern fronts. The pioneer work of Ledingham (1920) in Mesopotamia however the admirable study of dysentery in Egypt and the Mediterranean theatres of war by Wenyon and O'Connor (1917) and above all the splendid work of Dohell in London and Southampton which resulted in the publication in 1919 of his memoir *The Amœba Living in Man* and in 1921 of Dohell and O'Connor's *Intestinal Protozoa of Man* soon showed that this view was an entirely erroneous one. Throughout Mesopotamia and India probably throughout the East in general bacillary dysentery is about five or six times as common as is amoebic dysentery. Thus Dohell and Harvey (1923) record that of a series of cases from different theatres of war in hospital with clinical symptoms of acute dysentery only 6.1 per cent showed motile *Entamaba histolytica* the remaining 93.9 per cent being judged to be bacillary either from the microscopical appearances of the cellular exudate in the stool or by the isolation of the specific dysentery bacilli. Wenyon and O'Connor (loc. cit.) are recorded in the same memoir as having found bacillary dysentery to be sixteen times as common as amoebic in troops in Egypt during the period January to August 1916. Anderson (1921) on an analysis of figures for troops from different fronts considers that over 90 per cent of dysentery cases were of bacillary origin. Mackie (1922) considers that the majority of dysentery cases in Mesopotamia were of bacillary origin whilst Cunningham (1923) found 96 per cent of cases of dysentery in the jails of Eastern Bengal to be of bacillary origin and that much the same proportion held for Moplah prisoners examined in the Madras Presidency. In the general annual reports by the Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India it is impossible to differentiate the figures for bacillary dysentery from those for amoebic dysentery but our

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subjects are very well dealt

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An even more recent record is that by Wats Loganathan and Conquest (1928). Their findings among British and Indian troops in the Secunderabad Command were as follows:—

Total number of cases with mucus or mucus and blood	404
<i>B. dysenteriae</i> isolated from	178 or 44.1 per cent
<i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> found in	43 or 10.6 per cent
Exudate typical of bacillary dysentery but <i>B. dysenteriae</i> not isolated	101 or 25.2 per cent
Exudate indefinite no organism isolated	82 or 20.3 per cent

Thus in this series bacillary dysentery accounted for 69.3 per cent of the admissions and these authors remark that the medical officer who uses emetine or allied drugs without laboratory diagnosis would be wrong in nearly nine cases out of ten.*

Further whilst we cannot definitely establish any seasonal variation in the types of dysentery met with in India yet there appears to be a definite difference in the geographical distribution of the two infections. Amœbic dysentery is relatively frequent in wind swept dry regions where the infective cysts are blown on to foodstuffs by hot and arid winds whilst bacillary dysentery is relatively more common under communal and city conditions where the population is more closely crowded and where the infection consequently spreads more easily and especially so where water supplies may come to be contaminated. Further whilst bacillary dysentery—and especially that due to *Shigella bacillus*—a frequently epidemic amœbic dysentery is never epidemic but always endemic.

We wish that we could bring home to the medical profession in India the much greater prevalence of bacillary than of amœbic dysentery for therapy—if it is to be successful—must be based on a correct knowledge of the facts.

* Still further evidence on the same subject has been published by Manifold and de Monte with this volume in press. The station of Poona is notorious for the great prevalence of intestinal trouble there during the summer—a condition locally referred to as Poonaitis. These workers have shown that Poonaitis is almost always due to infection with the bacillus of Flexner. Important findings in their memoir are that the bacillus of Flexner far more often causes diarrhoea than true dysentery and the great importance of flies as carriers.

REFERENCE

- MANIFOLD J. A. and DE MONTE A. J. (1938) Report on an investigation of dysentery and diarrhoea in Poona. *Indian Journ. Med. Res.* Vol. XX No. 3 p. 601.

CHAPTER II

Acute and Subacute Bacillary Dysentery /*Ætiology Pathology and Symptoms* Acute and Subacute Amoebic Dysentery /*Ætiology Pathology and Symptoms* Balantidial Dysentery Mixed Infections

Into the pathology and symptomatology of acute bacillary dysentery it is not necessary for us to enter in much detail since these subjects are very well dealt with in the text books of tropical medicine

Of *predisposing causes* one may mention fatigue chills errors in drink and diet and especially any cause likely to cause irritation of the intestinal canal A very good example of the latter is an account of a severe epidemic due to Shiga's bacillus among Moplah prisoners at Bellary given by Lopez (1906) The prisoners were under very good conditions of housing food and latrine accommodation and flies were relatively few But most of the prisoners when admitted were in a much debilitated condition and an epidemic of Shiga's bacillus dysentery set in with 520 cases of which 40 or 7·7 per cent proved fatal The only predisposing cause that could be ascertained was the very high proportion of sulphates in the drinking water supply and when this was changed in October 1920 the epidemic ceased completely Children under the age of five years appear to be especially liable to bacillary dysentery whilst small outbreaks due to Shiga's bacillus appear to be prevalent in Indian jails during the cold weather and bacillary dysentery is especially prevalent in asylums and mental hospitals Owing to the insanitary habits of lunatics when bacillary dysentery occurs in an asylum the latrines are very apt to become fouled and the infection to become epidemic

Infection is usually acquired by *contigium* by fecal contamination of cooking utensils dishes and food or water and the more crowded the community the more likely is the disease to become epidemic A good example of infection from an infected water supply is one given by Fletcher and Jepps (1924) a small epidemic due to Shiga's bacillus occurred in a remote village in the Federated Malay States and caused 69 cases with 17 deaths the water supply was from a shallow well which was found to be infected It is stated by Manson Bahr (1905) that the bacillus of Shiga will survive for three weeks in such a water supply direct sunlight however

is lethal to it. Chronic bacillary carriers are always a most important source of small epidemics. Thus Stitt (1922) quotes an instance of a small epidemic of Shiga type recorded by Friedmann: an infected soldier returned to barracks after furlough and thus resulted in 86 cases in the man's regiment 49 of which belonged to his own squadron. The epidemic was only finally suppressed by the enforcement of the most rigid rules with regard to washing the hands after leaving the latrine. Mild and unrecognised cases are also important factors in the spread of epidemics.

The role of flies as disseminators of bacillary dysentery may possibly be of some importance. Thus Manson Bahr (1914) records having isolated the bacillus of Shiga from the gut of house flies in the Fiji Islands and the same author (1922) records that in Egypt during the really hot weather both dysentery and house flies are rare but directly the flies increase during the cooler autumn months there is a proportionate rise in the incidence of bacillary dysentery. It has been proved experimentally that dysentery bacilli can survive for five days in the intestine of the house fly.

We shall deal with the bacteriology of the dysentery bacilli later but we may here quote certain figures as to the relative incidence of Shiga and Flexner infections respectively. There is no doubt that Flexner infections preponderate overwhelmingly over Shiga infections. Infection with the bacillus of Flexner tends to be endemic and to persist all the year round with a rise to a maximum peak during the rains whilst Shiga infections tend to occur in small and localised epidemics and are apparently most prevalent during the cold weather. Manson Bahr (1922) records that during the Great War Shiga infection was recorded from all theatres of war that it accounted for about half the number of cases in the Eastern theatres but that in France and Belgium it was responsible for only 15 per cent of the cases of dysentery. Fletcher and Jepps (1924) isolated Shiga's bacillus in only 31 or 3 per cent of their series of 983 cases. Manifold (1926) isolated it in only 15 out of his series of 117 cases of bacillary dysentery. Fletcher and Jepps remark that infections with Flexner's bacillus were eighteen times as common as infections with Shiga's bacillus in common with all other authorities however they stress the importance of Shiga infections as a cause of mortality.

Wats Logunandin and Conquest (1928) record that of 178 stools from which dysentery bacilli were cultivated the distribution of the species of bacilli concerned was as follows —

Total number with <i>B. dysenteriae</i>	178
Flexner's bacillus isolated in	147 or 82.6 per cent
Shiga's bacillus isolated in	22 or 12.4 per cent
Schmitz's bacillus isolated in	9 or 5.0 per cent

In brief we would place the causative organisms of dysentery in India in the following order of importance —

- 1 The bacillus of Flexner on account of its universal prevalence
- 2 The bacillus of Shiga on account of its virulence
- 3 *Entamoeba histolytica*
- 4 *Bilindium coli*

Acute Bacillary Dysentery Pathology

We shall deal with the bacteriology and serology of the *Bacillus dysenteriae* later in a separate chapter it is sufficient here to state that the dysentery bacilli are divided into two main groups the non mannite fermentors or Shiga Kruse group and the mannite fermentors or Flexner Strong group. The former are especially associated with acute epidemic bacillary dysentery the latter with endemic sporadic and subacute or chronic bacillary dysentery.

In mild cases the earliest lesions in bacillary dysentery seem to originate in the solitary lymphoid follicles of the large intestine which become hyperæmic and swollen and then ulcerate. From this origin snail-like ulcerations are produced which spread across the bowel wall especially along the free edges of the transverse folds of mucous membrane. Along with this there is generalized catarrhal inflammation of the whole mucous membrane and hypersecretion of mucous mucus. In hyperacute cases the chief change is in the intestinal mucosa but there are abundant signs throughout the body of widespread and acute toxæmia. Very acute inflammation of the whole of the mucosa of the large intestine sets in and if life be sufficiently prolonged this ends in gangrene or colliquative necrosis of the whole of the mucosa of the colon. The disease tends especially to attack the rectum and pelvic colon but may affect the whole of the colon and even the lower part of the ileum. On opening the abdomen paralytic distension of the large intestine is often observed the mucosa is bright red and acutely inflamed there may even be plum coloured patches. The lumen of the gut is occupied by viscid blood stained mucus or even with pure blood and serous fluid. A general lymphoid peritonitis is not infrequently present in the peritoneal cavity with deposition of lymph floculi on the peritoneal surface whilst the mesentery is often œdematous. The mesenteric glands are inflamed the right side of the heart engorged the liver usually enlarged and congested with consequent parenchymatous changes. The gall bladder usually contains scanty and viscid amber coloured bile. The spleen is generally firm in section engorged and slightly diffusent. In very acute cases death may occur within 36 hours from the onset of first symptoms.

In less acute cases the signs of generalized toxæmia are slighter. The mucosa of the colon is of a rusty plum colour and stippled with numerous submucous hæmorrhages. The gut wall is œdematous and consequently thicker than normal.

PLATE I

The lesions of acute dysentery
[Figures reproduced reduced in size from Baermann
Tropischer Darmkrankheiten by kind permission
Leipzig]

- Fig 1 Acute Shiga bacillus dysentery Death on the 6th day
per c mm Agglutination + 1 60 A
flexure
- 2 Shiga bacillus infection 3 months duration
Leucocytes 10 500 per c mm Agglutination
terre thrombo sis
- 3 Mixed infection Stools full of motile Entamoeba
+ 1 80 to Shiga s bacillus Leucocytes 15
96 5 F Died the day after admission
- 4 Gangrenous amœbio dysentery Descending
peritonitis and diffuse hepatitis Leucocytes
on the 6th day

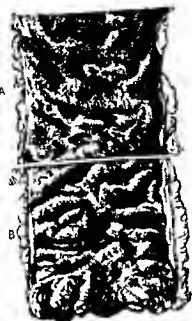


FIG 1



FIG 2



FIG 3



FIG 4

If the patient survives for a week or longer this stage of acute hæmorrhagic infiltration of the gut wall passes into a state of colligative necrosis of the mucosa. The large gut especially the sigmoid flexure and rectum is narrowed down into a contracted elastic tube. The mucous membrane is converted into an olive green—or sometimes blackish—substance rigid to the touch and often honey combed or fenestrated. In acute Shiga infections the mucous membrane of the whole of the colon may be necrosed and blackish green from the ileo cæcal valve to the anus whilst there may be acute patchy membranous inflammation of the last foot of the small intestine. The intestinal contents consist of dark grey fluid containing blood or of fluid bile containing necrotic sloughs. Occasionally the necrosis may have a patchy distribution in the descending and pelvic colon or be confined to the hepatic and splenic flexures.

Should the patient survive such a state of affairs which he rarely does the necrosed mucous membrane is exfoliated in much the same manner as a diphtheritic membrane exposing a raw bleeding granulated surface underneath. In such cases death may occur in the third or fourth week of the disease. At autopsy the body is found to show great emaciation the subcutaneous fat has completely disappeared and the tissues appear as if drained of fluid. All fat has disappeared from the omentum and the abdominal viscera are considerably wasted. The mesenteric glands are hard and fibrous. Should the patient survive the gut passes into a condition where fibrosis of the raw surface competes with attempts at regeneration of the mucous membrane from islands of mucosa which have escaped unscathed. Where the necrosis is more limited exfoliation of necrosed membrane leads to the formation of ulcers of irregular outline usually of oval or quadrilateral shape and communicating with one another by submucous sinuses. This condition may involve the whole of the large intestine and lead to a characteristic rat eaten appearance. The ulcers of bacillary dysentery may be distinguished from those of amoebic dysentery by the fact that they tend to run transversely to the longitudinal axis of the gut. In subacute Flexner infections the mucosa may appear granular and resemble the skin of a toad the oedematous mucous membrane being divided by cracks fissures and ulcers into knobs and boxes like those on a toad's back. On repair of such a gut the colon may be contracted down to a narrow fibrous tube with the mucous membrane converted into a glazed surface with fibrotic scars or the colon—and especially the transverse colon—may become sacculated portions distended with gas or intestinal contents alternating with fibrous constricting bands. Plastic peritonitis may lead to the matting together of coils of large and small intestine and omentum.

Where less extensive damage has taken place the mucous surface resembles reddish plush and the formation of granulation tissue may occur as a generalized condition throughout the mucosa of the colon or in scattered portions in the lower part of the large bowel and may end in polypus formation. Diaphanous

areas of fibrosed bowel may occur at the hepatic and splenic flexures. General hypertrophy of the bowel wall such as is observed in chronic amoebic dysentery does not occur.

The ulceration in bacillary dysentery usually does not extend deeper than the submucous coat but very occasionally it may involve the muscular and even peritoneal coats. Manson Bahr (1922) records that in a series of over 300 autopsies on bacillary dysentery cases ante mortem perforation of the transverse colon with generalized peritonitis was found in 3 instances. This however is a very rare complication of bacillary dysentery. The ulcers are generally roughly ovoid in shape their bases consisting of grey and yellow tenacious sloughs.

Turning to the histopathology of the diseased tissues in the most acute phase the mucous membrane is infiltrated with lymphocytes and round plasma cells the capillaries are engorged and there are numerous capillary hemorrhages in the submucosa. The goblet cells show great secretory activity whilst the lymphoid follicles beneath the muscularis mucosae are intensely inflamed. In the necrotic stage the whole mucosa has undergone coagulation necrosis and is converted into a structureless layer in which only polymorphonuclear leucocytes with disintegrated nuclei can be distinguished with difficulty. The submucosa is thickened to twice or three times its normal thickness owing to oedema and hemorrhage. The oedema is most intense amongst the connective tissue fibres and lymphatic channels immediately adjacent to the muscular coats. In the vascular and lymphatic capillaries numbers of large endothelial macrophages can be distinguished throughout the section. These are large cells from 15 to 20 μ in diameter and appear to be derived from the capillary endothelium. They often contain ingested red blood corpuscles and leucocytes and when voided in the stools are liable to be mistaken for vegetative forms of *Entamoeba histolytica*. The fibres of the circular and longitudinal muscular coats stand badly and appear to be affected by the general toxic processes. In the stage of exfoliation of the necrosed mucosa the dead mucosa is seen towards the lumen of the gut whilst beneath it the muscularis mucosa has become converted into a mass of granulation tissue and the submucosa has become the site of newly formed capillaries. In the stage of repair proliferation of the columnar epithelium of the crypt of Lieberkuhn is seen together with abundant formation of granulation tissue. The submucosa is oedematous and contains much collagenous fibre and fibroblasts.

Dysentery bacilli have occasionally been recovered from the inflamed mesenteric glands at autopsy but never from the bile or blood stream. During life however they may very rarely invade the blood stream. Thus Manson Bahr (1922) records that Wilson during the war in France recovered Shiga's bacillus in 3 instances in blood cultures from 83 acute cases and also obtained Shiga's bacillus 3 times and Flexner's bacillus 8 times in cultures of the urine of 113 cases.

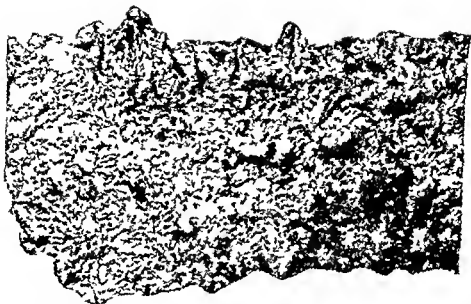


FIG. 4. Acute Ulcerative dysentery. Ascending colon with black in cross section with Shiga's bacillus. The patient was taken ill in the surgical ward of the hospital and died on the sixth day. There was an acute patchy membranous inflammation of the lower 1/3 of the ileum. The mucosa margin of the large intestine was crossed and black between from the ileocecal valve to the anus.
(After Fletcher and Jepson 1934)



FIG 5 Depth rectum mlar in the large intestine
sent re Dysentery ntr t t in hospital
Pat t t led on the 9th day
(After Fletcher and J pps 194)



FIG 6 Necrosis of the mucosa in the large intestine
infection with Flexner bacilli. Auto in
flamation of the large intestine especially
the ascending and transverse colon. Death
on the 10th day
(After Fletcher and J pps 194)

The number of the stools passed during the 24 hours varies enormously according to the severity of the disease and their number and character may be taken as a guide to prognosis and treatment. They may only number 3 or 4 in the day or there may be up to 50 stools a day or they may be so incessant that the patient is almost continuously on the bed pan. In cases running a favourable course after an initial diarrhoea they consist of gelatinous blood stained mucus resembling red currant jelly or pink frog spawn. They are of such tenacity that the stool adheres to the bed pan and can only be detached from it with difficulty. They are characteristically odourless or may have a faint smell of spermin. After three or four days in such cases the stools become more purulent, contain less blood and are of a yellowish colour. Next the bile pigments make their appearance together with grey faecal matter whilst finally the appearance of pasty yellow stools indicates that convalescence has begun. In some mild Flexner cases the stools may be faecal from the beginning but with a glairy coating of mucus. In many Flexner bacillus infections the stools are diarrhoeic and offensive containing mucus but little or no blood.

In fulminating bacillary dysentery the stools contain a large proportion of dark blood and resemble meat washings whilst they have a musty odour. There may be dark blood stained clots mixed with green bile stained mucus or the stool may consist of a very foul dark liquid containing much altered blood without obvious traces of mucus. When necrosis of the mucosa has taken place the stools may be choleraic in character and contain sloughs of the dead exfoliated mucosa. In hyperacute cases the stools may consist only of pure blood or of serous exudate.

The blood changes are not characteristic in bacillary dysentery. In about a quarter of the cases there is moderate leucocytosis. The urine in severe cases is concentrated of high specific gravity about 1.030, dark coloured and contains abundant urates. The tongue is usually clean but in acute cases may be coated with a thick yellow fur.

Acute Amoebic Dysentery Aetiology and Pathology

Acute amoebic dysentery is due to invasion of the mucous membrane of the colon by *Entamoeba histolytica* but is actually an unusual—and not a common—complication of amoebiasis. The morphology of this parasite will be described later but it is to be noted that in only some ten per cent of persons infected with *E. histolytica* is there sufficient ulceration of the colon mucosa to give rise to symptoms of dysentery.

Infection is acquired by the patient swallowing the infective cysts of the parasite. The resistance of the cysts of *E. histolytica* is extraordinary. They are killed by complete desiccation but will withstand anything short of it for a prolonged period of time. Yorke and Adams (1926a) have recently made a special study

of the viability of the cyst of *F. histolytica*. They find that normal faeces contain a substance which tends to kill off the cysts but when the passed faeces are diluted with water the cysts survive. The cysts commence to die off rapidly in faeces kept at either 0 C or 16 to 20 C and are all dead in 3 or 4 days time. Washed suspensions of cysts however may show viable cysts up to a period of three weeks. At 15 C the cysts survive for 30 minutes but are killed in 5 minutes at a temperature of 50 C. They are remarkably resistant to emetine and yatren and to relatively high concentrations of hydrochloric acid and chlorine. Chlorine in strengths far in excess of that used for bacteriological sterilization of water supplies has no effect on them.

The following chemicals were found to be lethal to the cysts in the strengths stated both at 37 F and at laboratory temperature

Mercuric perchloride at	1	2 500
Formaldehyde	0.5	per cent
Carboic acid	1	100
Lysol	1	100
Milton	2.5	per cent
Potassium permanganate inactive at	1	100
Yatren no effect in 5 per cent solution		
Emetine hydrochloride no effect in 5 per cent solution		

Transmission occurs from man to man by the contaminative method. Usually in the tropics infection is acquired from a carrier i.e. an apparently healthy person who harbours *F. histolytica* in his colon passes the infective cysts in his faeces and has to do with the handling of foodstuffs. Water supplies and fresh vegetables may also come to be infected whilst the cysts may perhaps be blown about in dust and settle on foodstuffs. A fall of rain may wash sewage into wells and water supplies and thus pollute them with the infective cysts. Tanks, rivers and ponds are frequent sources of infection. Wenyon and O'Connor (1916, 1917) have stressed the importance of flies as carriers and disseminators of the infection; they will feed readily on faeces containing cysts of *F. histolytica* and the cysts will pass intact through their intestine and be deposited in their faeces on foodstuffs etc. Or a fly by first visiting the latrine and then the dinner table may convey the cysts on its spongy feet from faeces to foodstuffs. In general however it is the human carrier who is chiefly responsible for the carrying of the infection. If a medical officer in charge of a regimental mess or other hostel institution has a number of cases of amoebic dysentery frequently occurring examination of the faeces of all cooks or mess servants concerned who have to do with handling the food will soon show the presence of one or more active carriers responsible for the occurrence.

The incidence of *F. histolytica* infections is now known to be world wide. Dobell (1921) gives the percentage of infection among 3146 persons examined in the

United Kingdom as being from 7 to 10 per cent. Boeck and Stiles (1923) examined the feces of 8 029 persons in America including both those who had stayed at home and those who had been abroad and found from 8 to 10 per cent infected. Wenyon and O'Connor (1917) in Alexandria found 5 per cent of healthy British troops infected, 10 per cent of regimental cooks—a most dangerous state of affairs—and 14 per cent of apparently healthy jail prisoners. In Calcutta during a year's routine examination of hospital patients 24 persons were found parasitised out of 233 examined and we may conclude that in general some 10 per cent of humanity is parasitised with this entamoeba also that in the tropics the figure is probably higher—some 15 per cent or so.

The senior author when attached to No. 12 Indian General Hospital in Mesopotamia in August-December 1916 examined the stools of the whole personnel of the hospital—112 persons—and found that 6 per cent of them were *F. histolytica* carriers. In September 1918 the personnel had risen to 300 in all by the addition of new drafts but most of the old personnel were still present. The stools of these 300 persons were now examined and a carrier incidence of 20 per cent was discovered. These findings show how the carrier incidence steadily rises in a community of individuals constantly exposed to amoebic infection.

Kofoid, Swezy and Boyers (1925) record as high an incidence as 53.7 per cent on examining 367 employees of mixed races of the United Fruit Co. in America but this figure refers to a rather low grade population. The more often and the more carefully stools are examined in the tropics the higher becomes the incidence of *F. histolytica* infection and a general figure of 15 per cent for the tropics is probably not too high.

That man contracts the infection by swallowing the infective cysts was first experimentally demonstrated by Walker and Sellards (1913) in the Philippines. They selected 20 jail prisoners in whom on repeated preliminary examination of their stools no protozoa had been found. They were placed on a fully cooked diet with nothing but distilled water to drink in order to exclude all natural channels of infection. They were then fed with capsules containing cysts of *E. histolytica* collected from the feces. Fifteen out of the 20 became parasitised with *E. histolytica* in periods varying from 1 to 44 days the average being 9 days and 4 of these persons went on to develop amoebic dysentery at 29, 57, 87 and 95 days respectively after the infective feed (average 65 days).

It is possible that the dog may play some part in the dissemination of amoebic dysentery in India for parish dogs frequently feed on feces and Ware (1916) has recorded what was apparently spontaneous amoebic dysentery in a pack of foxhounds in India. Nine dogs became infected of which one died and the other eight were cured by the administration of emetine. No worker has yet discovered encystation of *E. histolytica* in the dog but the possible role of this animal as a disseminator of amoebic infection deserves further investigation. Certain authors

claim that the rat may harbour *E. histolytica* and Lynch (1915) claims to have successfully infected this animal experimentally. Brug (1919) states that wild rats in Java—*Mus rattus*—harbour *E. histolytica* in Nature but a natural entamoeba of the rat *Entamoeba muris* is of very common occurrence and somewhat simulates *E. histolytica* though it forms an 8 nucleate cyst such cysts often containing chromatoid bars. Kessel (1923) states that rats may be freed from their natural amoebic infection by feeding them with stale bread soaked in a saturated solution of magnesium sulphate and claims that in such rats freed from their natural infection he has established *E. histolytica* infection. Kessel (1923) regards the rat—*Rattus norvegicus*—as a natural reservoir of *E. histolytica* and a probable disseminator of the disease from man to man. The rat is a common inhabitant of drains and sewers but it is a clean feeder and it is very doubtful whether it can play the part attributed to it as a disseminator of amoebic infection.

The cyst wall of *E. histolytica* is insoluble in gastric juice but soluble in trypsin (Uyehara 1914). Hence when the infective cysts are swallowed presumably they pass through the stomach unchanged and excyst either in the small or the large intestine. Sellards and Philer (1924) have shown that experimental excystation of *E. histolytica* can be produced in the rectum of the kitten and their work has been confirmed by Knowles (1925) and Hoare (1926). Hence it is probable that in man the site of excystation of the cyst is the large—rather than the small—intestine. The actual process of excystation has been especially studied by Yorke and Adams (1926). In the formed stool of the carrier there are found cysts at all stages of development: 1 nucleate, 2 nucleate and adult 4 nucleate. In culture these cysts often develop into the mature state and excyst: the cyst wall dissolves and from within it a mass of protoplasm containing 4 nuclei emerges, the nuclei being clustered together at the anterior pole. From this four little uninucleate amoebulae are budded off in turn. Sometimes however the nuclei multiply until 8, 16 or even more are present in a cluster at the anterior pole and a similar large number of uninucleate amoebulae are budded off in turn. Presumably a similar process takes place in the human colon and the little amoebulae creep by pseudopodial movement to the mucosa of the colon which they invade finally settling in the submucous layer where they multiply by binary fission.

Amoebic infection may occur at any age although it is distinctly uncommon in young children as compared with adults. The infection when once acquired may and probably does persist in most untreated cases for the rest of life (Dobell and Low 1922 p. 1319). All races and both sexes are liable to infection and in Calcutta at least we consider the infection to be quite as common in male Europeans as in Indian males.

Once the amoebae are liberated from the cysts they first attack the mucous membrane of the gut. They may attack the mucosa directly at any point on its surface or may pass down the crypts of Lieberkuhn and make their entry into the

tissues through these *E. histolytica* secretes a powerful proteolytic ferment and feeds upon pre digested tissue juice this leading to dissolution of the tissues and in sections of infected gut the amœbæ are seen living in clusters in little pools of dissolved tissue between the mucosa and the submucous coat. The amœbæ divide by binary fission and as they multiply, they tend to wander laterally in the plane between the mucous and submucous coats. As they constantly come in contact with fresh living tissue they attack, dissolve and destroy it. They are thus found in close relationship to the living cells and with a variable quantity of necrotic tissue in their train.

The degree of ulceration produced by *E. histolytica* varies very widely. Within recent months a certain amount of evidence has come forward indeed to show that occasionally—but only occasionally—*E. histolytica* may live in the lumen of the gut and feed upon bacteria. This however is not its normal habitat which is in the deepest layers of the colon mucosa where it feeds upon dissolved tissue juice and sometimes red blood corpuscles. Even in the apparently healthy carrier ulceration of the gut is present often indeed to a surprising extent—even in the absence of symptoms. The ulceration may be superficial and not extending through the muscularis mucosa or it may be so deep as to cause a perforation into the peritoneal cavity. It may be localized as solitary ulcers varying in size from those just visible with a hand lens to conspicuous crater like cavities several centimetres in diameter. On the other hand it may be diffuse and spread over areas of all sizes. A serpiginous type of ulceration is not uncommon and adjacent ulcers—originally discrete—frequently become confluent. A common type of ulcer and one which is generally regarded as typical is one in which the amœbæ have penetrated the mucous membrane leaving a breach of variable size at the point of entry and have then spread laterally in the submucous layer where they give rise to a pocket of necrosed tissue extending beneath the mucosa and passing downwards to a variable depth. Such undermining of the mucosa is common and gives rise to ulcers with an overhanging margin and filled with necrotic tissue which often projects in shreds and tufts into the lumen of the gut. In vertical section the ulcers have the shape of a flask. Deep ulcers often have swollen or raised edges and are surrounded by punctate hæmorrhages. The smallest ulcers may only appear to the naked eye as tiny hypæmic patches. All types of ulceration may be seen in different parts of the gut simultaneously.

When the ulceration is not sufficiently severe to give rise to symptoms we refer to the patient as an *Entamoeba histolytica* carrier and it is clear that such a carrier is a danger both to himself and to others. He passes cysts of *E. histolytica* in his stools and may thus infect other persons whilst if at any time his resistance to the infection is lowered the ulceration may become severe and the patient develop amœbic dysentery. Exactly why infection with *E. histolytica* should give rise to amœbic dysentery in one person but in nine others to no symptoms at all

it is difficult to say and a study of the problem is badly wanted. The ideal relationship between parasite and host from the point of view of both is that of balanced mutual toleration and this is nearly but not quite reached in the healthy *E. histolytica* carrier. Presumably what causes the carrier to go down with amoebic dysentery is a sudden or gradual lowering of resistance in the mucosa of his colon. In this connection the work of Sellards and Leiva (1923a) is of great interest. They have shown that under conditions of stasis in the colon with the gut contents very fluid infection of kittens occurs when cysts are administered into the lumen of the colon. Possibly the same two factors—intestinal stasis and a fluid condition of the contents of the colon—are operative in man. Further the presence of hæmolytic streptococci may be of importance. As shown by Knowles Napier and Das Gupta (1923) and Acton and Knowles (1924) the stool in amoebic dysentery is usually markedly acid in reaction and the following findings for the pH of stools may be quoted:

	Number of observations	pH findings on an anal standard deviation
<i>E. histolytica</i> present and active in stool	5	6.30 ± 0.09
<i>E. histolytica</i> present vegetative phase dead or lysed		00 ± 1.11
<i>E. histolytica</i> cysts present	1	7.1 ± 0.03
Cholera toxin present in stool no amoebae seen	54	6.96 ± 0.01
Paratyphoid present as clinical case	3	8.11 ± 0.168

Observations during 1925 at the Calcutta School of Tropical Medicine have shown that practically every sweeper at the School is a healthy carrier of *E. histolytica* but free from symptoms. In the case of these sweepers on repeated culture of the stool no hæmolytic strains of streptococci have been isolated. On culture of the stools of acute amoebic dysentery on a modified Conrad Drigalski medium however hæmolytic streptococci are very frequently isolated whilst the same often happens in the case of the carrier with minor symptoms. Non-hæmolytic streptococci are of normal occurrence in healthy stools but these streptococcal strains in acute amoebic dysentery are of hæmolytic type and correspond to the *Streptococcus anginosus* type of Andrews. It is possible that what happens in the transition from the healthy carrier state to that of amoebic dysentery is that hæmolytic streptococci invade the small amoebic ulcers produce lactic acid and that this acid environment proves favourable for the rapid growth and multiplication of *E. histolytica*. It is to be noted however that Boeck and Drbohlav (1925)

PLATE II

The lesions of amœbic dysentery

[Figures reproduced reduced in size from Baermann and Fekkesdorff (1913) *Atlas Tropischer Darmkrankheiten* by kind permission of Johann Ambrosius Barth Leipzig]

- Fig 1 Amœbic dysentery acute gangrenous necrosis Transverse colon Stools watery brown offensive and incessant Temperature subnormal Leucocytes 21 600 per cmm Ileum also affected in lower part *Entamoeba histolytica* found post mortem in enormous numbers Death on the 6th day
- 2 Acute amœbic dysentery supervening after lobar pneumonia Cæcum and ascending colon Leucocytes 13 600 per cmm Temperature 102.9 F Acute necrosis and sloughs
- 3 Recurrent subacute amœbic dysentery A cæcum and ascending colon B descending colon Biliary abscesses in the right lobe of the liver and thrombosis of the right external iliac vein Stools 5 to 10 a day
- 4 Mild chronic amœbiasis of the cæcum and ascending colon. Patient died from tuberculosis of the lungs pleura and mesentery *Entamoeba histolytica* present in sections of the ulcers Stools diarrhoeic.



FIG. 1



FIG. 2

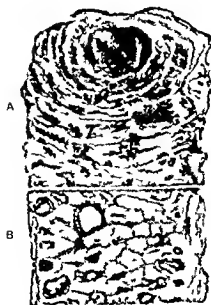


FIG. 3

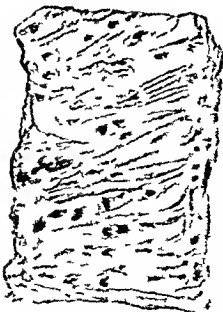


FIG. 4





FIG 10 Amebic dysentery. Saweed sloughs. Ascending colon. The whole of the mucous membrane covered with stringy black sloughs like saweed. History of 14 days illness but it must have been of longer duration. There were firm adhesions to the pancreas and two perforations in the transverse colon.
(After Fletcher and Jepp. 1914)

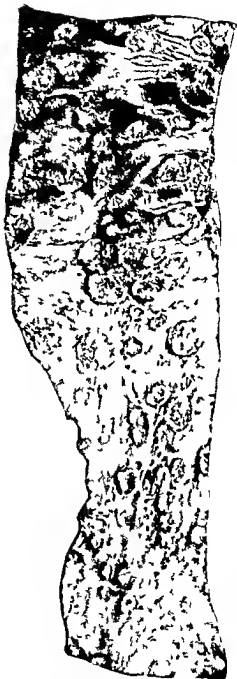


FIG 11 Amebic dysentery. Small ulcers in the rectum and small intestine. The ulcers in the rectum are very variable. The rubs are formed by yellow or white slough. The stringy black sloughs are found higher up the intestine.
(After Fletcher and Jepp. 1914)

record that the pH of their culture medium for *F. histolytica* is from 7.2 to 7.8 and that the amœbe grew well at this pH. This fact would rather tend to throw doubt upon this acid environment view. Further investigation is wanted on the whole subject for if we could only obtain a clear understanding of why *F. histolytica* should prove pathogenic to some persons but not to others we should be in a position to much improve our treatment of amœbic dysentery.

Whatever the case with the onset of amœbic dysentery the ulceration which was present in the carrier state now becomes much more extensive. The characteristic lesion of amœbic dysentery is an exuberant ulcer. The border of the ulcer is raised, rounded and frayed at the edge whilst attached to its base is a shaggy black slough—the Dyak's hair sloughs as Fletcher and Jepps (1914) term them. The lesion commences from beneath the surface of the mucous membrane attacks it from below, pushes it up and breaks through, whereas bacillary dysentery on the contrary begins as a catarrhal inflammation of the surface succeeded by colliquative necrosis. In a moderately severe case the whole surface of portions of the colon may be covered with sea anemone ulcers with rounded raised margins and white sloughy bases. From other ulcers long hairy black sloughs hang into the lumen of the gut or the whole surface of the colon may be covered with stringy black sloughs looking like seaweed. In the rectum the ulcers tend to be smaller and fewer in number than in the cæcum and ascending colon.

The invasion of the mucous membrane by the entamœbæ is accompanied by reaction on the part of the tissues leading to the characteristic ulceration. The capillary vessels at first show stasis then thrombosis. Exudate is poured out from them giving rise to œdema followed by coagulation necrosis. There is a certain degree of round celled infiltration but not suppuration; if suppuration be present it indicates a secondary infection. The necrotic tissue in the cavity of the ulcer consists of a coagulum containing cells in all stages of disintegration, broken down nuclei and fragmented endothelial cells. In acute cases the sloughs are dark in colour and have been compared to old black cobwebs. Stools containing such sloughs are usually very offensive.

Whereas in bacillary dysentery the part of the colon most usually attacked is the rectum and pelvic colon in amœbic dysentery the lesions are most numerous in the cæcum and ascending colon where the ulcers may be so numerous as to cover the whole surface with hairy looking sloughs like a tangle of seaweed. When ulcers do occur in the rectum they are usually small and with but little sloughing. Clark (1914) has shown that the infection especially tends to become localized at the flexures of the colon. In 186 fatal cases of amœbic dysentery examined post mortem the distribution of the lesions was as follows:—(a) scattered throughout the colon in 113 cases (61 per cent) (b) isolated areas alone involved 63 cases (31 per cent) chiefly in the cæcum ascending colon iliac colon rectum and hepatic flexure in that order of frequency (c) in 10 cases (5 per cent) no ulcers but only

scars were found these were cases of secondary amœbiasis with infection of other organs. Stasis he emphasizes is of great importance in intestinal amœbiasis and it is at the sites where stasis is greatest that there is a special tendency for the amœbæ to invade the gut wall. The appendix was involved in 41 per cent of the cases and the lower end of the ileum or the ileo cæcal valve in 5 per cent. Figure 12 is taken from his paper.

In convalescent cases after the amœbæ have been killed off, either by treatment or by the natural powers of resistance of the body the sloughs separate and granulation tissue appears at the base of the ulcer. Fibrous tissue is gradually

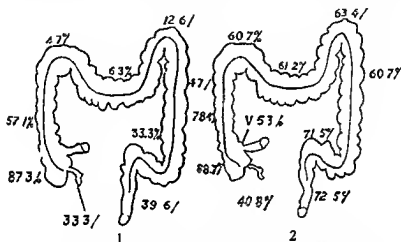


FIG 12 The distribution of amœbic lesions in the appendix, colon and rectum (After Clark, 1944)

- 1 Shows the regional distribution of lesions in 63 cases examined post mortem where only one or few ulcers were present. This shows the sites where primary infection of the gut is most liable to occur.
- 2 Shows the regional distribution of the lesions in a total of 186 fatal cases examined post mortem.

formed and contracts giving rise to a characteristic parchment like scar often of a slatey colour. Fletcher and Jepps (1924) describe the healed ulcers after amœbic dysentery as strong smooth depressed inconspicuous cicatrices. The scars of bacillary dysentery on the contrary are always pigmented and are often so friable that they break down readily under slight pressure.

Amœbic Dysentery Symptomatology

The mode of onset of amœbic dysentery differs very markedly from that of bacillary dysentery. In bacillary dysentery the onset is usually sudden and the

patient rendered ill by the toxæmia present takes to bed. In amoebic dysentery—in our experience—the onset is usually gradual and progressive and the patient although incommoded tries to carry on his work. Very frequently amoebic dysentery begins as a mild diarrhoea which gradually develops into dysentery in the course of a few days. Even severe and ultimately fatal cases may begin in this mild fashion. There is considerable abdominal discomfort but not the marked abdominal pain of bacillary dysentery. Tenderness on pressure is usually elicited over the cæcum and transverse colon. The stools in acute amoebic dysentery are usually small, dark tarry in colour and offensive. They are larger than those in bacillary dysentery, are always faeculent and are much fewer in number than in bacillary dysentery; they may number only three or four during the 24 hours and seldom exceed twelve. Fever is not present as a rule except in severe cases or when hepatitis accompanies the dysentery. Tenæmus and straining as a rule are much less marked than is the case in bacillary dysentery as the rectum is much less frequently involved. The stools contain much dark and altered blood and have an offensive odour. In consistence and appearance they have been compared to anchovy sauce. Blood streaked mucus is present and occurs as flecks scattered throughout the faecal mass. In most cases the cæcum and ascending colon are thickened and palpable and in old standing and chronic cases the markedly thickened cæcum may be mistaken for an appendicular abscess. Progressive emaciation is often a marked feature of the disease.

In fulminant and gangrenous cases the onset may be sudden or the condition may be reached progressively after beginning with mild symptoms. In such cases there may be numerous stools—up to 20 or so a day—and the stools may contain much blood or be hæmorrhagic. If the ulceration is near the hepatic flexure the stool may be small, black and tarry and there may be severe epigastric pain. If the gangrene becomes extensive the gut may become paralysed and the passage of stools may cease. The stools in the severe cases are full of the characteristic black cobweb-like loughs and as Rogers (1921) points out the same may be detected by freely diluting the stool in a large vessel with water. There may be severe abdominal pain and all the signs of early peritonitis. Leucocytosis up to 20,000 per cmm may be present in the early phases of gangrenous amoebic dysentery but is not characteristic of milder cases. The cæcum and ascending colon are definitely palpable as an elongated sausage-like mass and if the intestine is greatly thickened without being tender in an acute case gangrene is usually present and the prognosis bad.

Death may ensue from exhaustion, intestinal hæmorrhage, perforation, peritonitis or complicating liver abscess. Perforation may be sudden with all the signs of acute peritonitis and in such cases laparotomy is usually of no avail owing to the gangrenous condition of the gut. More commonly post-cæcal or post-colic

perforation may occur leading to abscess formation behind the peritoneum and such cases may very closely simulate appendicular abscess

Cases which partially recover are very apt to become cases of chronic amoebic colitis. This condition will be dealt with in more detail later but in the meantime we may quote the following passage from Sir Leonard Rogers (1921)

Cases in which the bowel symptoms have persisted for a month or more may be considered for purposes of description to be chronic, although any hard and fast line must be artificial but necessary for purposes of clinical classification. There are few diseases which so frequently pass into a chronic and intractable stage as amoebic colitis the ulceration continuing for months or even for years fresh portions of the mucous membrane becoming involved as the earlier attacked parts heal extreme organic change of the bowel wall eventually resulting. The symptoms also vary greatly in accordance with the activity or quiescence of the bowel disease any degree from an acute gangrenous exacerbation down to mere slight irregularity of the bowels being met with whilst for weeks or even months the disease may be practically in abeyance once more to light up suddenly as a fairly severe attack of dysentery

By this time the patient will have become emaciated and anaemia of considerable degree will be evident from the pallor of the mucous membranes. The muscles will be greatly atrophied and the strength proportionately reduced. The stools although less frequent than in the earlier stages are yet sufficiently numerous and painful to be a cause of constant suffering to the patient whose condition is altogether a most pitiable one and if no relief is afforded by treatment he gradually sinks into extreme asthenia and worn out by his sufferings eventually finds a happy release in death

Rogers further gives an analysis of the duration of the condition in 30 such cases. Of these 5 had lasted for 1 month 12 from 1 to 3 months 7 from 3 to 6 months 4 from 6 to 12 months and 2 for over a year

Balantidial Dysentery

Balantidial dysentery is so rare in India that we have had no personal experience of it. The following general outline is taken from Dobell and Low (1922a)

'Invasion of the tissues of the large intestine by *Balantidium coli* gives rise to a chronic catarrhal condition and ulceration. The ulcers are usually blackish to the naked eye and recent ones are generally irregularly shaped with undermined edges. Between the ulcers the mucosa is reddened and haemorrhagic. In distribution, conformation and appearance generally the ulcers resemble both macroscopically and microscopically those produced by *E. histolytica*. Histologically the principal changes are catarrh of the mucosa necrosis hypertrophy of

the vessels hemorrhages round celled infiltration and sometimes infiltration with polymorphonuclear leucocytes. A local eosinophilia has also been described. The parasites usually lie again & or in the healthy tissues underlying the ulcers. They occur singly or in groups in the mucosa and submucosa at all depths in the muscular layers sometimes and in the blood vessels and lymph spaces.

I. L. Walker (1913) believes that *Balantidium coli* can pass through the healthy mucous membrane by pushing aside the cells or rupturing the epithelium the process not being accompanied by necrosis and ulceration. A diastase and a hemolytic have been isolated from the parasites (Givssner 1908) but not as yet a proteolytic ferment and it seems still doubtful how they actually penetrate and destroy the tissues. Secondary invasion of the liver or other organs—such as is seen at times in amebiasis—is not known to occur in balantidiosis.

Balantidiosis in man is sometimes associated with clinical symptoms especially diarrhea and dysentery. Waller found that about 20 per cent of his cases showed intestinal symptoms—the others being comparatively healthy carriers. Severe colic is a common symptom and tenesmus loss of appetite thirst a dirty tongue and cachexia have also been noted. Sometimes there is nausea or even vomiting. There is typically no pyrexia and the leucocyte count is usually normal but sometimes a secondary anemia appears in the later stages.

When diarrhea is present the stools are liquid and alkaline. In more severe dysenteric cases they contain in addition to mucus blood and occasionally pus. The abdomen may become swollen. Palpation of the colon often elicits tenderness and thickening may be felt through the abdominal wall. When the disease has become chronic general weakness exhaustion and emaciation are typically observable. Edema of the feet and ankles has been noted (Strong 1901). General thickening of the wall of the bowel may be met with and also strictures resulting from cicatricial contraction of old ulcers. In Strong's analysis of reported balantidial cases 70 per cent of the patients gave a history of having either associated with pigs or eaten or prepared fresh sausages and it appears probable that human beings usually acquire infection with *Balantidium coli* through swallowing food or drink contaminated with pigs' feces containing cysts.

Mixed Infections

Mixed infections with both bacillary and amoebic dysentery are by no means uncommon and Fletcher and Jepps (1914) record them as present in 27 out of their series of 198 cases or 14 per cent. Dysenteric bacilli and pathogenic amoebae were only found together twice in the same specimen of feces and from three to

six or more examinations were necessary to discover all cases of mixed infections. In 15 out of these 27 cases the double infection probably existed before the patients were admitted to hospital. In the other 12 the bacillary infection was apparently contracted whilst the patients were in hospital undergoing treatment for amœbic dysentery. It is to be noted that bacillary dysentery is frequently contracted in hospital. Amœbic ulceration may be superimposed on a healing bacillary infection but this is rare. It is much more common for acute bacillary dysentery to supervene in an intestine which is in a condition of chronic amœbic ulceration.

CHAPTER III

The Diagnosis of Dysentery Use of the Sigmoidoscope The Laboratory Examination of Dysenteric Stools The Morphology of *Entamoeba histolytica* and of *Balantidium coli*

IN the diagnosis of dysentery careful clinical examination of the patient should never be omitted whilst it is advisable to have a four hourly temperature chart kept. If the patient is not carefully examined such diseases as typhoid fever or tubercular enteritis or syphilitic strictures of the rectum may easily be mistaken for dysentery. On the other hand laboratory examination of the stools is even more necessary than clinical examination of the patient.

The Use of the Sigmoidoscope

Within recent years the sigmoidoscope has come to be more and more used in the diagnosis of the type of dysentery from which the patient is suffering whilst its value in excluding conditions which may simulate dysentery is very great. Recent papers which have drawn attention to the use of the sigmoidoscope—especially in connection with chronic and relapsing dysentery in India—are those by Hance (1927) and Gregg (1928) also one by Munson Bahr and Gregg (1921). The following are details with regard to its use chiefly taken from these three accounts.

The patient should first be carefully prepared or very little will be seen. In chronic cases it is as well to give a mild purgative overnight in order to clear the bowel. The bowel is at the same time repeatedly washed out with warm saline from a rectal tube and large glass funnel the washing being continued until the returned fluid is quite clear. This should be again repeated the next morning before the examination is made. About 20 to 30 minutes before the examination is made gr $\frac{1}{4}$ of morphia may be given hypodermically and a gr $\frac{1}{10}$ suppository of cocaine inserted into the rectum. With these precautions an anæsthetic is not usually necessary. Examination is best carried out with the patient in the lithotomy position though Hance especially advocates the knee elbow posture.

The instrument having been generously lubricated with glycerine is inserted into the anus and the patient directed to breathe deeply with his mouth open. Relaxation being thus obtained the instrument is passed beyond the sphincters and passed gently onwards being left more or less to find its own way. During

six or more examinations were necessary to discover all cases of mixed infections. In 15 out of these 27 cases the double infection probably existed before the patients were admitted to hospital in the other 12 the bacillary infection was apparently contracted whilst the patients were in hospital undergoing treatment for amœbic dysentery. It is to be noted that bacillary dysentery is frequently contracted in hospital. Amœbic ulceration may be superimposed on a healing bacillary infection but this is rare. It is much more common for acute bacillary dysentery to supervene in an intestine which is in a condition of chronic amœbic ulceration.

CHAPTER III

The Diagnosis of Dysentery Use of the Sigmoidoscope The Laboratory Examination of Dysenteric Stools The Morphology of *Entamoeba histolytica* and of *Balantidium coli*

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its passage in the anal canal it will be observed that the sigmoidoscope points first towards the patient's umbilicus and then on entry into the rectum changes its direction to adapt itself to the sacral curve. On this change of direction taking place the obturator is removed and the eyepiece with illuminating device substituted the remainder of the passage of the instrument being under direct visual control. If the lubrication has been liberal and the bowel thoroughly emptied but little use of the bellows is necessary. In this way a thorough and detailed inspection of the rectum and the lower 4 to 6 inches of the sigmoid flexure is possible. In normal healthy persons the bowel wall should be in soft folds which should yield gently as the instrument is advanced in the direction of the lumen. The mucosa should resemble the inside of the cheeks in colour but be slightly less shiny and the small blood vessels are more prominent. On reaching the pelvic colon the wall appears more flexible and the folds smaller and more numerous.

In acute bacillary dysentery the sphincter may be hyper or hypotonic the bowel is intensely hyperemic and instrumentation is painful. The contents of the bowel consist of a uniform mixture of blood and mucus with which much pus may be incorporated. The surface of the mucosa is dull and cedematous thickening takes up the folds of the gut so that they become less apparent. There may be large irregular ulcerated areas but not infrequently the bowel presents a spongy uniform wall which oozes blood all over on the slightest touch.

In chronic bacillary dysentery the perineal muscles are wasted the sphincter tone poor and the anus almost patulous. The mucous membrane may show general injection and hyperæmia bleeding easily when touched or there may be irregular ulcers shallow with their margins not undermined and their bases showing shreds of mucopus of which a film may cover the whole ulcer. Areas of exuberant granulation tissue may mask subjacent ulceration and the latter may only be revealed on removal of the former with a wool carrying probe. The folds of the gut may be narrow and scanty. The surface may in one place show anæmia and in another be hyperæmic and glazed or granular in appearance.

In amoebic dysentery there are frequently accompanying hæmorrhoids the sphincters are usually normal in tone and the rectum is thrown into voluminous folds so that the bowel appears redundant. These folds are soft and are easily pushed aside without pain. The contents of the bowel are mixed faeces mucus and blood. The sheen of the mucosa is of normal colour and scattered on the bowel wall are ulcers which are usually small clear cut oval circular or diamond shaped or saucer shaped. The smallest ulcers are about the size of a pin's head with the intervening mucous membrane normal in appearance. Sometimes the ulcers crown small elevations in the mucous membrane in which case they give an appearance resembling minute boils or carbuncles. In more acute cases the ulceration is much more extensive and flame shaped and blood stained mucus may

be observed drifting into the instrument and obscuring the view. Instrumentation is usually painless despite the ulceration.

One of the chief merits of the use of the sigmoidoscope is that not only will it often enable an immediate clinical diagnosis of which type of dysentery is present to be given but it will enable the observer to get perfectly fresh material for microscopic examination and culture.

The Laboratory Examination of Dysenteric Stools

If treatment is to be properly applied it is essential that as soon as the patient comes under observation the correct diagnosis of which type of dysentery he is suffering from shall be made. Whilst the general clinical state of the patient and the use of the sigmoidoscope may help to differentiate between bacillary and amoebic dysentery, the examination of the stools in the laboratory alone will enable the physician to say with certainty which type of infection is present.

1 The first essential is that the stool must be a fresh one free from urine and antiseptics passed into a dry bed pan. If possible the whole stool should be sent for examination. Examination of stale stools is a waste of time. A useful method of obtaining perfectly fresh material is one advocated by Colonel Proctor. If the patient is in the laboratory suffering from dysentery a soft rubber catheter can be passed well into the rectum, twisted round several times and withdrawn. There will then be a good deal of blood stained mucus in the eye of the catheter sufficient at least for microscopic examination and culture. This ensures obtaining perfectly fresh material. The use of a sigmoidoscope will also ensure obtaining fresh material.

2 First record the macroscopic appearance of the stool. As shown by Cunningham (1923) macroscopic examination of stools is of great value in controlling epidemic and endemic dysentery in such institutions as jails etc. Daily macroscopic examination of the stools of all inmates will soon enable one to identify those men who are passing blood and mucus or mucus only and to segregate them further microscopic examination in the case of these men will show what type or types of dysentery are present and indicate the correct line of treatment.

The stool in bacillary dysentery may vary a good deal in character especially if the disease has lasted for some days but typically it is an inoffensive stool composed almost entirely of bright red blood and mucus with little or no faecal matter. In amoebic dysentery the character of the stool may be very varied indeed. It may be simply diarrhoeic it may be semi formed with or without adherent traces of blood and mucus and its colour may vary from deep brown to greyish green. It is often a small stool dark and tarry in colour. As a rule the blood and mucus—the former of which may be invisible to the naked eye—tend to mingle more intimately with the faecal matter than in the case of the bacillary stool. Taken all

The microscopic characters of the exudate in the stool in amœbic dysentery are as follows —

(a) The total cellular exudate is in general scanty. A few polymorphonuclear leucocytes, some coarsely granular eosinophile leucocytes and clumps of red corpuscles comprise the picture. *E. histolytica* secretes a powerful proteolytic ferment and this results in semi-digestion of cellular elements. Thus as well described by Anderson (1921) the chief elements in the field are pyknotic residues, red corpuscles reduced to half or quarter of their original size, polymorphonuclear leucocyte nuclei and nuclear remnant, living free in the fluid. Anderson states that such pyknotic cell remnants comprise 83 per cent of the total leucocytes seen. (b) Macrophages may be occasionally present but they are very scanty in number and only very rarely seen. Anderson in fact states that they were absent from the stools of five cases very carefully examined. (c) A few intestinal epithelial cells are usually present but in scanty numbers. (d) The few polymorphonuclear leucocytes present show marked degeneration; they present a mouse-eaten appearance due to proteolytic digestion, are shrunken and disintegrated—a process finally going on to the production of pyknotic residues and free nuclear remains. (e) The bacterial picture may vary. Sometimes the only extraneous organisms seen are occasional chains of streptococci and scanty yeasts—the latter identified as such by their multiplication by budding. Sometimes however an amœbic stool may be loaded with bacteria and in such stools the motile *E. histolytica* die off very rapidly. The degree of bacillary infection in an amœbic stool may indeed exceed that in one due to bacillary dysentery. (f) Secondary infections may be present. Of these infections with hæmolytic streptococci and with Vincent's infection are the most important. In quite a number of cases of amœbic dysentery an infection with Vincent's spirochæte and the fusiform bacillus supervenes usually as a transient phenomenon on amœbic ulceration. Spirochætes in general are not at all infrequent in amœbic stools and if daily examination of the stools be conducted it will frequently be found in amœbic dysentery that at about the 4th or 5th day of the disease the stool swarms with Vincent's infection and that this infection clears up within another 36 or 48 hours.

The most important change however concerns (g) the red blood corpuscles. In amœbic dysentery there appears to be a marked change in the erythrocyte membrane which becomes sticky and agglutinative. As the stool is generally markedly acid and the hæmoglobin in it is being converted into acid hæmatin, the limiting membrane of the erythrocyte appears to degenerate. The red blood corpuscles tend to appear not singly or in rouleaux but agglomerated together into half-fused masses. One may here give a striking instance of this degeneration. In November 1923 the junior writer's attention was called by Dr B. M. Das Gupta, Assistant Professor of Protozoology at the School to a most unusual appearance in a fresh

amœbic stool The stool was full of actively motile *F. histolytica* pushing their way through their environment as Dobell well describes it like slugs moving at express speed But in every single microscope field in six consecutive preparations examined there appeared two or three red blood corpuscles which appeared to be motile and which presented exactly the appearance of a Trichomonas with an undulating membrane If present in only a part of one film such an anomalous appearance would of course suggest an artefact but this curious and aberrant appearance was present in every field in the six films examined Stained preparations were made and a study of these showed the nature of the artefact present The stool was full of spirochaetes with regular even curvature—presumably *S. eurygyrata* Owing to the adhesiveness of the red blood corpuscles many of these spirochaetes were adherent by either one or both ends or by their whole length to the edges of the red blood corpuscles and their movements gave the curious appearance of an erythrocyte with a marginal undulating membrane

Thus adhesive character of the erythrocytes in the amœbic stool is so marked that if it be present in a stool which otherwise shows the cellular character of a bacillary dysentery infection it should arouse the question of the possibility of mixed infection

Anderson sums up the characters of the acute amœbic stool as showing a very small proportion of polymorphonuclear leucocytes—7½ per cent in the differential count many coarsely granular eosinophile leucocytes—an average of 2 to 5 per cent in the differential count an absence or rarity of macrophages and a high proportion of pyknotic cell residues

The microscopic characters of the stool in bacillary dysentery present an entirely different picture Here the whole microscope field is full of cell Of these (a) some 90 per cent are polymorphonuclear leucocytes Although degenerated they present a totally different appearance to that of the scanty polymorphonuclears in the amœbic stool To quote Anderson (*loc cit*) they appear to die *en masse* their cytoplasm becomes full of refractile fatty globules the cell outline is well preserved however and the nuclei as seen in saline show up as dull greenish masses There is not here—as in the amœbic stool partial digestion and marginal disintegration but rather fatty degeneration and swelling Many of the polymorphonuclears in a fresh stool however are normal (b) Intestinal epithelial cells are fairly numerous they are either columnar or squamous and are usually somewhat swollen but with clearly visible nuclei (c) Endothelial cells are usually present in some numbers like the polymorphonuclears they show similar degenerative changes being usually vacuolated with breaking down nuclei (d) Macrophages are present in some numbers—about 2 per cent of the differential count according to Anderson The macrophage is a cell which is in origin either a large hyaline mononuclear leucocyte

PLATE III

The microscopic appearances of the stool in amoebic and in bacillary dysentery respectively

Fig A Amoebic dysenteric stool Note the scanty cellular exudate

- (a) Motile *Entamoeba histolytica* with pseudopodia and ingested red blood corpuscles
- (b) Agglomerated masses of red blood corpuscles showing their adhesive tendency and change of hæmoglobin to acid hæmatin
- (c) Flakes of mucus
- (d) Degenerated polymorphonuclear leucocytes showing mouse-eaten appearance
- (e) Lymphocyte
- (f) Coarsely granular eosinophile leucocyte
- (g) Pyknotic and nuclear residues
- (h) Yeasts
- (i) Chains of streptococci

Fig B Bacillary dysenteric stool Note the abundant cellular exudate

- (a) Unaltered red blood corpuscles showing normal dichroic yellow green colour
- (b) Polymorphonuclear leucocytes many of which show fatty degeneration and refractile dots
- (c) Ghost cells (vide text)
- (d) Degenerated epithelial cells
- (e) Macrophages showing ingested red blood corpuscles fat droplets and nuclear remains of ingested leucocytes
- (f) Endothelial cells many degenerating
- (g) Scanty non motile bacilli
- (h) Lymphocytes



Fig. A.

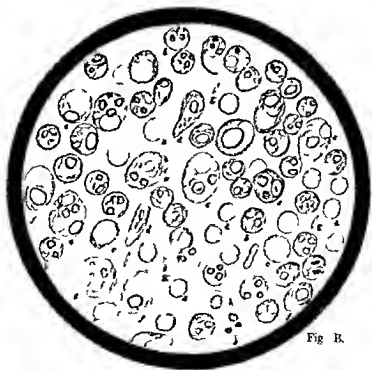


Fig. B.

a detached endothelial cell from the capillaries more usually or sometimes a wandering plasma cell. They show up very clearly and can be identified by their large size prominent nucleus which is usually oval and the ingested remains of erythrocytes nuclear remnants of ingested leucocytes and fatty globules. Many authors speak of these cells as being absolutely non motile. On the other hand they could not be phagocytic if they did not possess powers of forming pseudopodia and they are very sluggishly amoeboid. The amoeboid activity is however so sluggish that prolonged observation under the microscope is necessary to observe the formation of small knob like pseudopodia. (c) The red blood corpuscles are unaltered they show up as isolated cells or in normal rouleaux and the tendency to adhesion and a glomeration seen in the amoebic stool is here absent. (f) Ghost cells are a prominent feature of the exudate i.e. cells which have lost all structure but not their outline and which show a clear definite cell wall almost devoid of cell contents—mere shadows of their original selves. Many if not most of them are derived from breaking down polymorphonuclear leucocytes. Finally (g) the waterways between the cells show a very scanty bacterial content. In the early and acute case bacteria are extraordinarily scanty a few non motile bacilli are seen in each field on focussing sometimes in the fluid at a higher level there are scanty clusters of non motile bacilli of the dysentery group.

Anderson sums up the characters of the bacillary stool as being preponderance of polymorphonuclear leucocytes absence of eosinophilic leucocytes the presence of prominent macrophages and absence of pyknotic residues. To these characters we would add absence of any change in the red blood corpuscles which show their normal dichroic yellow green colour.

It should be added however that the microscopical characters of the bacillary dysentery stool may vary (a) with the specific organism concerned—thus in Flexner bacillus infections the stool is not infrequently feculant and with less cell exudate (b) with the stage of the disease. Thus Manson Bahr Perry and the late Sir Patrick Manson (1922) give the following as the characteristic cell picture during the stages of a bacillary dysentery case of average severity—

Stage 1 First three days of the disease—Preponderance of polymorphonuclear leucocytes fresh red blood corpuscles macrophages endothelial cells intestinal epithelial cells and calcium phosphate crystals. Few visible micro organisms.

Stage 2 Second three days of the disease—Disintegrating pus cells red cells bile stained columnar epithelial cells disintegrating macrophages and calcium phosphate crystals. Many motile bacilli visible.

Stage 3 Third three days of the disease—Disintegrating red cells free hæmatoidin crystals pus cell in an advanced stage of degeneration containing fat particles with active Brownian movement large numbers of motile bacilli and often flagellate protozoa or it may be active *F. coli*.

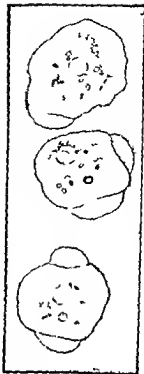
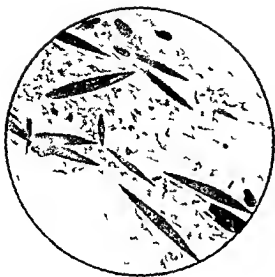
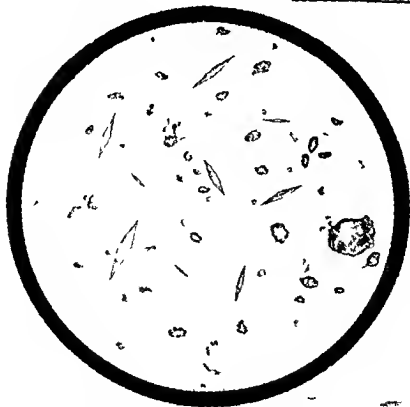
As the acute attack of dysentery subsides and convalescence sets in certain changes occur in the character of the cell exudate as seen under the microscope.

In the *amoebic stool* the most prominent feature is the appearance of Charcot Leyden crystals (Fig 13). These are of four types (a) thin sharply pointed whetstone shaped crystals varying from 5μ to 50μ in length (b) short almost diamond shaped forms (c) forms similar to the type (a) but with the ends truncated and (d) long acicular forms. In all cases they show up with a green clear refractile look and stain an intense jet black with iron haematoxylin staining. In iodine preparations they show up badly. Chemically Charcot Leyden crystals appear to consist of ethylamine and to be a product of tissue digestion by *E. histolytica*. As shown by Acton (1918) and by J. G. Thomson and Robertson (1921) the appearance of Charcot Leyden crystals in the stool is almost pathognomonic of amoebic infections and they may persist in the stool long after even cysts of *E. histolytica* have ceased to be found. So characteristic indeed of amoebic infection do we regard these crystals that their appearance in an acute dysenteric stool together with that of actively motile *E. histolytica* we regard as evidence of true relapse in amoebic infection—as distinct from re infection of a previously cured patient.

In the *bacillary dysentery stool* as the acute symptoms subside the secondary intestinal protozoal parasites become prominent. Motile vegetative *Entamoeba nana* and *Iodamoeba buisichii* are frequently seen at this stage whilst such stools often show vegetative *Entamoeba coli* in considerable numbers. The two commonest organisms in such stools however are *Trichomonas hominis* in its motile vegetative phase and *Blastocystis hominis*—a fungus of high type and a source of considerable confusion to the laboratory worker—which often appears in profusion. In the meantime the pH of the stool is rising towards the normal of about 7.2 in the amoebic case and falling very slightly to about 7.5 to 7.8 in the bacillary case.

In *balantidial dysentery* according to Haughwout (1924) the cellular exudate is at first rather like that in an amoebic dysenteric stool scanty and with an absence of macrophages and ghost cells. He states that the action of the balantidia on the mucosa of the colon is mechanical rather than by the production of enzymes and hence epithelial cells of normal appearance tend to be shed in fair numbers and to appear in the stools. Later on with reaction occurring in the infected gut pus cells may appear in considerable numbers but under such circumstances the worker must be very careful not to mistake *Balantidium coli* in the stools of a patient suffering from bacillary dysentery for balantidial dysentery.

During the later phases of amoebic dysentery the ulcers may become secondarily infected with streptococci or other pyogenic bacteria. Under these conditions the vegetative forms of *E. histolytica* may be found in a stool which has a rich



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(b) As it need by iron has at (x) (y) r J C T m n and Robert on
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FIG. 14. Vegetative *E. t. obs. in sol. ca.* (*E. t. makes it open*) in a slightly stable state as seen in the first state. Note that the nucleus is almost inv. bi. and the large rounded dome like pseudopodia surrounding of ectoplasm (From D. d. in 1911 after Hartmann)

cellular exudate full of polymorphonuclear leucocytes. Again the utmost care must be taken to exclude bacillary dysentery

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In cases of balantidial and amebic dysentery careful and thorough examination of the stools will almost always enable the laboratory worker to find the protozoa responsible in their actively motile and vegetative phase. On the other hand the characters of the cellular exudate in acute bacillary dysentery are so typical that this infection can usually be diagnosed at once from them. Hence the laboratory worker in most instances will be able to send such an immediate report to the waiting physician as amebic dysentery or balantidial dysentery or probable bacillary dysentery which will enable the appropriate treatment to be instituted at once without waste of time.

Haughwout (1934) sums up the results of his study of the cytodagnosis of dysenteric stools as follows:—

1 The cellular exudate of acute bacillary dysentery is characteristic of that and of no other intestinal disorder. Its distinguishing features are present in the early stages of the onset and offer no difficulties in interpretation.

2 The absence of endothelial macrophages and evidence of toxic necrosis in a leucocytic exudate no matter how rich is sufficient to rule out a diagnosis of bacillary dysentery. Such decision however should be made only after prolonged search of several carefully made preparations from different portions of the bowel movement.

3 The cellular exudate occurring in protozoal dysentery is mainly of value in estimating the extent of accompanying bacterial infections. No diagnosis of protozoal dysentery should be made except in the presence of organisms in the trophozoite stage of their life cycle and under circumstances that make it probable that they and no other organism are the cause of the prevailing acute process.

4 Certain non specific affection of the colon give rise to the production of large masses of mucus. This mucus may contain desquamated epithelial cells in large numbers as well as leucocytes and cells of uncertain origin. Superficially such masses may resemble the exudate of bacillary dysentery but brief study of the cells shows its composition to be so different from that of bacillary dysentery that it becomes impossible to mistake such an exudate for that of bacillary dysentery.

5 Cellular exudates of other types often present features that lend themselves to analysis and ultimate interpretation in chemical terms.

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the stool of acute amoebic dysentery he will come across the actively motile vegetative forms of *Entamoeba histolytica*—usually in considerable numbers. In the stool of balantidial dysentery there should not be much difficulty in coming across the large free swimming forms of *Balantidium coli*. In bacillary dysentery cultural methods will be necessary.

The Vegetative Form of Entamoeba histolytica

We may first consider this as seen in a perfectly fresh amoebic dysenteric stool. When rounded up the vegetative form measures from 18 μ to 40 μ , usually from 20 μ to 30 μ but is sometimes smaller than 10 μ . One third of the ectoplasm of the amoeba consists of clear, translucent highly refractile ectoplasm the remaining two thirds consisting of finely granular endoplasm—a point which is of considerable value in differentiating it from vegetative *E. coli* (Fig. 14).

The movements of the amoeba in the perfectly fresh state are very characteristic. The following description is taken from Dobell (Dobell and O'Connor 1921) —

A normal individual just removed from its host and examined in a suitable medium and under favourable conditions of temperature displays astonishing activity. It flows almost in a straight line across the field of the microscope in an extended form which suggests a slug moving at express speed. In this condition the anterior end consists of a single large pseudopodium, advancing so rapidly that no sharp line can be seen separating the ectoplasm from the endoplasm. The red corpuscles contained within such an organism flow about and roll round one another with every movement as though the protoplasm were a mobile liquid. Thomson and Robertson (1925) give the following description of the movements of *E. histolytica* as seen in material from culture *in vitro* — When actively motile *E. histolytica* becomes stretched out in a ribbon shape with blunt rounded ends. The ectoplasm while clearly differentiated from the endoplasm, yet tended to maintain the general outline of the amoeba. That is to say the blunt rounded anterior end consisting of the ectoplasm was the same width as the remainder of the body. Movement was usually more or less direct not as in some of the other species indeterminate and the distance covered considerable.

In brief motile *E. histolytica* has a tendency to travel across the microscope field whereas the other intestinal entamoebæ do not cover ground with anything like the same rapidity tending, far more to remain in or about the same spot. The advancing large rounded pseudopodium consists almost entirely of clear ectoplasm the endoplasm flowing in front behind as the pseudopodium advances. A point which such actively motile amoebæ often exhibit is that the posterior end is often pulled out as if trailing with particles of debris adherent to it.

The endoplasm which constitutes two thirds of the amoeba is very finely granular. Its colour as seen *in vivo* is not infrequently rather yellowish from digested hæmoglobin. In the endoplasm in a large proportion of the individuals

encountered in an ætic dysenteric stool are ingested red blood corpuscles. These may number usually from 1 to 10 although as many as 48 have been encountered with a single individual. They may be singly—more or less reduced in size by digestion—in the endoplasm or may be either singly or in some numbers in a more or less large food vacuole. They stain black with iron hæmatoxylin. Their size is more or less reduced as they are in process of digestion sometimes only a tiny remnant of a red corpuscle is seen. If the stool be a fluid but a non-dysenteric one with no red corpuscles available there will be none in the amoeba.

This ingestion of red blood corpuscles affords a valuable means of identifying motile *E. histolytica* in a dysenteric stool. Any entamoeba found in a dysenteric stool showing active motility and containing ingested red blood corpuscles is *ipso facto E. histolytica* is the safest working rule for the student to go by.

In addition to feeding on red blood corpuscles *E. histolytica* obtains an important part of its nutrition by osmosis from the rich dissolved tissue juice prepared for it by its powerful proteolytic ferment. It is this excreted ferment which explains its tissue dissolving powers. The ulceration which it causes is not due to a mechanical forcing of its way by pseudopodial activity into the colon mucosa but to its causing lysis of the tissue cells. In a section of infected colon mucosa it will be seen that the amoebae lie in little pools of liquefied tissue.

Dobell states that rarely *E. histolytica* actually ingests tiny fragments of tissue cells of the host. During several years of study of *E. histolytica* however we have never observed this phenomenon and it must be of considerable rarity. It will sometimes ingest starch grains if these are present in the faeces.

The nucleus of *E. histolytica* is true to the nuclear pattern in the genus *Entamoeba* but of much finer and more delicate type than that of *E. coli*. It is vesicular and spherical and measures some $4\ \mu$ to $7\ \mu$ in diameter. When stained by iron hæmatoxylin its structure is seen to be as follows.—There is a delicate clear cut achromatic nuclear membrane delimiting the nucleus from the cytoplasm. On the inner aspect of this nuclear membrane is a thin uniform deposit of chromatin apparently consisting of very fine granules in contact with one another. In optical section the nuclear membrane with its fine deposit of chromatin appears as a finely beaded ring. The karyosome is small spherical not more than $0.5\ \mu$ to $1\ \mu$ in diameter and lies in the exact centre of the nucleus. (In badly fixed specimens some distortion of the position of the karyosome may take place.) Between the fine central karyosome and the peripheral chromatin on the nuclear membrane is a clear zone containing no chromatin.

The result of the deficiency of structure of the nucleus of *E. histolytica* is that the nucleus is invisible in a saline preparation in contradistinction to the brightly visible refractile ring nucleus of *E. coli*.

Such is the picture presented by the vegetative phase of *E. histolytica* as seen in a perfectly fresh amoebic dysenteric stool and it is quite unmistakable. The protoplasm of the amoeba is perfectly sterile and it never ingests bacteria or yeasts.

In the passed stool however the vegetative amoeba commences to die almost immediately and (in the tropics) is often dead within about two hours after the stool has been passed. It is precisely this fact which has led to the tremendous confusion with regard to *E. histolytica* in the literature since it is safe to say that quite the majority of workers have worked with stale stools and dying entamoebae and hence have given inaccurate descriptions of the parasite.

Dying vegetative *E. histolytica* presents a picture entirely different from that of the fresh actively motile forms (Fig 15 (11 12 13) and Fig 14). To quote Dobell: "The animal soon ceases to progress and becomes more or less sessile. In this condition it usually continues to undergo pronounced changes of shape accompanied by the emission of a few large blunt and blade like pseudopodia. These pseudopodia are perfectly hyaline and highly refringent and are composed entirely of ectoplasm—a fairly sharp line of demarcation being visible between their clear protoplasm and the granular endoplasm. Movements of this type may continue for hours before the animal finally rounds up, ceases to move and dies. No similar movement is performed under the microscope by any of the other intestinal amoebae of man."

In brief the amoeba now ceases to travel and remains stationary. It continues to throw out large voluminous dome shaped pseudopodia consisting only of clear ectoplasm from different points of its surface continuously. In the meantime the endoplasm becomes progressively more and more vacuolated; the vacuoles are characteristically spherical and they tend to fuse together into ever larger vacuoles. Further bacteria of all sorts now commence to invade and parasitize the dying amoeba. As Dobell remarks: "Bacteria are almost invariably absent from all *E. histolytica* in a perfectly fresh amoebic dysenteric stool also in the entamoebae of experimentally infected kittens. But as the amoeba dies it becomes the prey of the bacteria in the stool and soon its protoplasm—both ectoplasm and endoplasm—is found to contain numerous bacteria of all sorts cocci and bacilli alike. In stale stools or liver abscess pus the majority of the amoebae often contain bacteria and as a rule the staler the material and the more degenerate the amoebae in it the more plentiful are the bacteria contained in them."

Further as the amoeba dies its nucleus breaks up. The chromatin on the nuclear membrane breaks up into large irregular masses which may lie anywhere within the nucleus. The karyosome degenerates. The result is that in place of the typical *histolytica* type of nucleus invisible in a saline preparation we have now a breaking down nucleus showing irregular masses of chromatin within the thin nuclear membrane. These chromatin masses may be visible in a saline

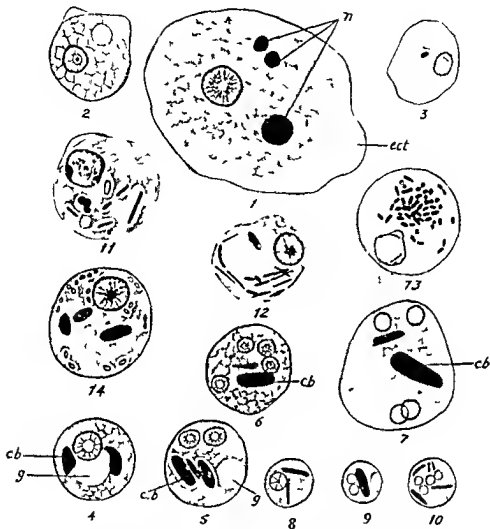


FIG 15 *Entamoeba histolytica* (After Dobell 1919 and Dobell and O'Connor 1921)

- 1 Vegetative phase. Note the nuclear structure and absence of all ingested food particles except red blood corpuscles. ect ectoplasm—comprising one third of the volume of the amoeba. n remains of ingested red corpuscles.
- 2 3 Pre-cystic form. The amoebae roundling up and withdrawing their pseudopodia. Glycogen vacuoles. ct chromatoid bars.
- 4 Cyst at the binucleate phase. g glycogen vacuole. cb chromatoid bars.
- 6 7 Mature cysts at the tetra-nucleate phase. cb chromatoid bars.
- 8 9 10 Cysts of a small sized strain at 1 and 4 nucleate phases. Note the massive chromatoid bars.
- 11 12 13 Dying vegetative *E. histolytica* in a stool atool. Nucleus and generating ectoplasm parasitised by bacteria.
- 14 Mono nucleate cyst degenerating in a stool atool. Nucleus and chromatoid substance breaking up bacteria in endoplasm.

successfully cultivated *E. histolytica* *E. coli* *Flexit. max. nana* and *Dientamoeba fragilis* on this medium. Day Gupta (1930) success fully cultivated *E. nuttalli* of the monkey on it. Dobell and Laidlaw (1936) have cultivated the entamoebae of monkeys on it also *E. agrestis* of man.

The essential principle of Pock and Drbohlav's medium is that it consists of two parts solid and liquid and the amebae grow on the surface of the solid medium underneath the fluid. The latest modification given by Drbohlav (1936) is as follows —

1. Pock and Drbohlav's medium Drbohlav (1936)

A buffered Ringer's solution is first prepared as follows —

Sodium chloride	6 gms
Potassium chloride	0.1 gm
Calcium chloride	0.1 gm
Sodium bicarbonate	0.1 gm.
Distilled water	1 litre

To each litre add 5 gm. of mono potassium phosphate and adjust to a pH of 7.4 with NaOH or KOH solution.

(a) For the solid part of the medium one may use either

(1) Agar 14 gms

Ringer's solution pH = 7.4 buffered as above

1 litre

or

(2) Pice starch

10 gms

Agar

14 gms

Ringer's solution pH = 7.4 buffered as above

1 litre

or

(3) Flood agar slopes (N.N.N. medium) heated for 30 minutes at 100°C and then cooled.

The solid medium should be in the form of the ordinary agar slant.

To prepare the liquid part of the medium take one litre of the buffered Ringer's solution in a sterile flask. Sterilize the surface of an egg with absolute alcohol and allow it to dry. Perforate the shell with the pointed end of a sterile forceps and then aspirate the white of the egg into a 5 cc syringe with a stout needle of 1/4 bore taking care that no yolk is taken in. (In India as hen's eggs are so small it is better to use the white of two eggs.) Transfer the white of egg to the Ringer's fluid and thoroughly dissolve by shaking. With a sterile 1 pipette transfer volumes of 5 cc or thereabouts of the fluid into the tubes containing the solid medium so that the liquid reaches a height of 1 cm above the solid slant.

Next keep the tubes in the 37°C incubator. This is the most essential step in the whole procedure as the medium must be warm when inoculated. In order to inoculate the tubes (for growth of vegetative *E. histolytica*) pick up a portion of dysenteric mucus from the stool with a sterile capillary pipette and inoculate into the fluid part of the medium. Incubate with the tubes in the vertical position at 37°C.

From time to time material for examination can be removed from the bottom of the tube by means of a capillary pipette. It is advisable in doing so to scrape the surface of the solid slant with the end of the pipette in order to remove amebae which may be adherent to it. Multiplication takes place for two to three days after which bacterial overgrowth usually kills off the amebae. Subcultures should therefore be taken every two days by sucking up a mass of the amebae with a capillary pipette and transferring them to a fresh tube of warm medium.

To obtain really good cultures of *E. histolytica* the best procedure is to inoculate a kitten's rectum with an amebic dysenteric stool and when it is suffering from amebic dysentery to use the perfectly fresh stools full of actively motile *E. histolytica* for inoculation into the warmed medium. As a rule the second or third subculture gives a better growth than does the original one.

In all such culture *Elasdocyctis hominis* if present is a veritable nuisance since it multiplies in this medium with great rapidity and kills off the entamoebae. Drbohlav advocates adding 1 per cent dextrin to the liquid part of the medium as this suppresses the growth of *Elasdocyctis hominis*.

2. *Dobell and Laflaw's* H₂O + S₂ modification of Boeck and Drbohlav's Medium (Dobell and Laflaw 1954)

Of the eight different modifications of Foock and Drbohlav's medium given by Dobell and Laflaw (1954) the first has found the most success in giving a high percentage of successful cultures.

The following solution is used in the following composition —

Sodium chloride	9 gms
Potassium bicarbonate	0.2 gm
Calcium chloride	0.2 gm
Distilled water	1 litre

The solid part of the medium consists of aseptically prepared serum (if in the formula). To prepare the whole medium (sterilized by filtration in a vacuum) is added in suitable amount with all except the serum. It is most important not to heat the serum longer than 10 minutes in an incubator at 30°C. When the slants are cooled they are subcultured to tubes in sterility.

The solid part of the medium is the white of four eggs dissolved in 1 litre of Ringer fluid and finally filtered by filtration with a 0.45 µm filter. One great advantage of this is that it is stronger than the one used by Drbohlav — is that it contains wet films of the amoebae to be fixed by electrolysis at study.

The agar agar medium is Boeck and Drbohlav's method by distributing the egg solution into the tubes containing the slants. After the tubes are covered with solid part of the medium with a depth of 1 cm of fluid. The tubes of medium are kept in the 37°C incubator. Just before a minute in the tube with material containing the amoebae a little starch is added to the medium with a platinum loop or a sterile pipette. The result is that the slants are very easily sterilized by heat in a steam bath containing about 1 gm of chloroform at 180°C (dry heat).

On this medium Drbohlav and Laflaw have obtained cultures of *E. histolytica* with a number of similar cultures of *F. gigantica* and *F. hepatica* cultures.

3. *Dobell and Laflaw's* H₂O + S₂ modification of Foock and Drbohlav's medium

Four eggs are added with whole and broken into a sterile flask containing glass beads. The whole of Ringer solution (if the formula given in the above) is added and solution is stirred by shaking. The tubes are then filled with a sufficient quantity to produce slants about 1.5 inches in length upon coagulation by heat. The tubes are then sealed in an incubator for 24 hours at 30°C until the medium is solidified. They are then transferred to an autoclave and sterilized at 121°C for 20 minutes to prepare the slants. These constitute the solid part of the medium.

The liquid part of the medium is a 1% solution of the serum in 8 parts of Ringer's solution of the above formula. This is added to the tubes to give a depth of fluid over the solid part of the medium. The tubes are then kept at 37°C incubator until wanted for inoculation.

In this medium Dobell and Laflaw with *F. histolytica* and *E. coli* both gave abundant cultures when passed for a considerable time of growth with *E. coli* was modified to that with *E. coli* was modified. The amoebae were grown for a week or even ten days and the culture is only necessary to be once a week.

Drbohlav and Laflaw went on to state that certain difficulties may then attempt to cultivate the amoebae in a medium of this type. They can be kept in a tube for a long time by being kept in a medium containing 10% (w/v) of a solution. It is not necessary to heat the reaction of the medium to its approximate neutral pH and in the formula with suspended serum the serum itself appears to act as a buffer.

In all the material used for the cultures should be free of emulsions containing vegetable oils of all kinds. Emulsions of this kind are common in the cultures, but as a rule the amoebae multiply rather than are killed by the emulsions in the initial phase and

F. gingivialis never encysts. In order to obtain cultures from material containing cysts the following technique should be adopted—

Cysts just passed in the stools do not hatch or develop further if placed immediately in the culture medium and incubated at 37°C. they merely die. They must first be exposed to cold and then kept for a certain time. The cyst containing faeces are thoroughly emulsified in an excess of normal saline or of Ringer's fluid and the larger fecal particles removed by filtering through glass or cotton wool. The cysts are then concentrated either by sedimentation over several days or by centrifuging on several days.

The washed and concentrated cysts are next treated with a large volume of 0.2 per cent HCl which is allowed to act on them for 24 hours. This kills off *Plasmodium* and the majority of bacteria and yeasts. After this the acid is carefully neutralized with a weak solution of sodium bicarbonate using neutral red as an indicator and the cysts are then again collected by centrifuging and washed two or three times centrifuging after each washing. The final deposit containing washed cysts and faecal debris is used to inoculate tubes of culture medium which have been kept in the 37°C incubator.

In a recent paper Warrington, Yorks and Adams (1936) claim that it is not necessary to cool the cysts before inoculating the medium with them. They find that in J.F.9 medium immature cysts develop into mature ones so that within a few hours the great majority of cysts have become tetranucleate. The degree of excystation resulting from sowing freshly passed faeces on the medium and incubating at 37°C. is very variable. It may be nil and it rarely exceeds 50 per cent. Freshly passed faeces contain some substance which inhibits excystation.

Dobell and Laidlaw find that certain bacteria react unfavourably upon cultures of entamoebae whereas others favour their growth. Thus they succeeded in isolating *Bacillus* No. 1 which is particularly favourable for cultivation of *E. histolytica* and *E. coli* a *Bacillus* III which was unfavourable to all species of entamoebae tested and a *Pseudomonas* IV which was especially favourable to *E. nana*. In inoculating culture media with washed cysts they previously inoculate the culture medium with the bacillus which is most favourable for the species of entamoeba concerned.

Mixed cultures are very common and it often happens that when microscopic examination has shown only one species of entamoeba present as a confluent or even a third may appear in the cultures. *E. histolytica* can be separated from *F. coli* by inoculating the material per rectum into kittens; the infection with *E. histolytica* takes in the kitten but that with *E. coli* does not. *E. coli* can be separated from *F. histolytica* by treating the mixture with 1:50,000 emetine. This kills the *E. histolytica* *in vitro* but leaves the *E. coli* unharmed. If a mixed culture be removed from the incubator and kept at room temperature for a certain time one species often survives longer than another and by making subcultures at different intervals of time the more resistant species can usually be isolated in pure culture.

Dobell and Laidlaw note that prolonged cultivation of *E. histolytica* in starch-containing media leads to the production of a race of parasite which although it will still ingest red blood corpuscles becomes non-pathogenic for the kitten.

The rice starch used for Dobell and Laidlaw's modifications of Boeck and Drbohlav's must be chemically and microscopically pure. Mereka produces such a special rice starch preparation.

In Boeck and Drbohlav's medium *E. histolytica* multiplies with great rapidity and at 24 to 48 hours the culture will be found full of actively motile forms. It should be noted that the cultures are extremely sensitive to cold. In fact on two occasions at night when the gas supply to the incubator failed rich cultures of *E. histolytica* died out within 12 hours.

In culture vegetative *F. histolytica* presents the same structure and characteristics as do the amoebae in a freshly passed animal's intestine and of with them very important difference. In vitro—though not in the human body—vegetative *E. histolytica* takes to feeding upon bacteria. There is here no question of dying and being parasitized by bacteria for the amoebae are actively motile and in full vigorous activity. It is actual ingestion of bacteria by the amoebae. It would seem as if *E. histolytica* is adaptable to changes in its environment. In the mucous membrane of the colon its essential diet is the nutritious tissue prepared for it by its proteolytic enzyme. In the dysenteric stool red blood corpuscles form its chief article of diet. But in culture—with neither of these

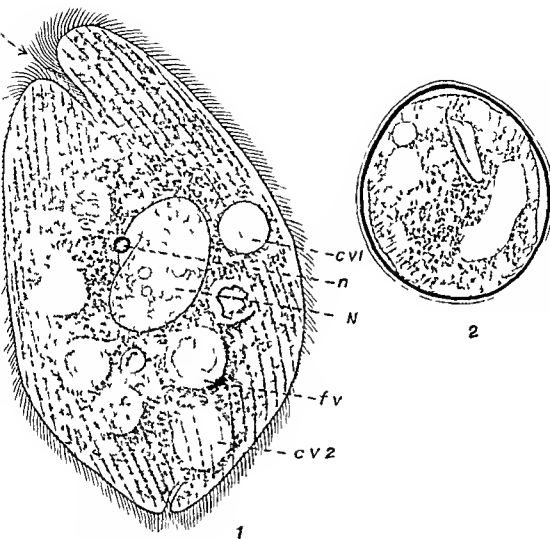


FIG 16 *Balantidium coli*

- (1) Active ciliate — diagrammatic
 Living specimen as seen from the left side
 N = nucleolus
 n = nucleus
 CV1 = anterior contractile vacuole
 CV2 = posterior contractile vacuole
 fv = food vacuole
 mo = mouth
 () Cyst — Living from the feces of a pig
 (After Dobell & O'Connell 1911)

source of nourishment available—it takes to feeding upon bacteria a kind of degeneration of its tastes as it were

The genus *Balantidium* Claparède and Lachmann 1858

This genus was founded by Claparède and Lachmann for a ciliate protozoon which Ehrenberg (1838) had observed in the rectum of frogs and which he had named *Bursaria onto oon*. The members of this genus which include species in a considerable variety of hosts both vertebrate and invertebrate have pear shaped bodies completely covered with longitudinal spirally arranged rows of cilia. At the anterior end of the ventral surface is the peristome a depressed area the anterior or broader end of which is at the anterior end of the body whilst its narrow posterior end is on the ventral surface. The cytostome is an opening in the depression of the peristome and from it there extends an oesophagus which ends in the endoplasm. There are one or more contractile vacuoles and at the posterior end of the body a cell anus. The macronucleus may be sausage shaped or spherical while a small micronucleus is closely applied to it. A large number of species of *Balantidium* has been described especially from batrachians. Two species occur in pigs and one of them is found also in man.

Balantidium coli (Malmsten 1854) (Fig. 16)

Balantidium coli of man was first discovered in the stools of two patients suffering from dysentery by Malmsten in Stockholm in Sweden in 1857 who referred to it as *Paramacium* (?) *coli*. It was placed in the genus *Balantidium* by Stein in 1863.

Balantidium coli is the largest protozoal parasite of the human intestine and lives in the large intestine chiefly—perhaps—in the cæcum. It is egg shaped or pear shaped and about $50\ \mu$ to $80\ \mu$ in length by $40\ \mu$ to $60\ \mu$ in breadth. Different authors have given measurements for length varying from $30\ \mu$ as a minimum to $200\ \mu$ as a maximum. It is a well known fact that many species of free living ciliates such as *Paramecium caudatum* have several races of different mean sizes and it is probable that different races of *Balantidium coli* exist with different mean dimensions. McDonald (1927) gives its length as varying from $30\ \mu$ to $200\ \mu$ and its breadth from $20\ \mu$ to $170\ \mu$. The body is clothed with a coat of fine cilia arising in parallel longitudinal rows from minute basal granules the rows of cilia giving the animal the appearance of being striated. The main part of the body consists of granular endoplasm in which the internal organs are situated. This is surrounded by a thin clear layer of ectoplasm and the whole body is invested externally by a very thin and delicate cuticle through which the cilia emerge.

At the anterior pole is a funnel shaped depression the peristome which is actually on the ventral surface of the ciliate. With the constant changes in position

of the anterior end of the body the appearance of the peristome varies. Sometimes it shows up as a wide open triangular depression at other times as a longitudinal groove or slit. On its margins is the adoral zone of cilia more prominently developed than are the cilia elsewhere on the body. The peristome leads down to a cytostome or cell mouth situated a short distance below the anterior pole of the ciliate and from the cytostome a very short oesophagus leads into the endoplasm. The body of the animal is not quite symmetrical the dorsal surface being more convex than the ventral surface. The cilia of the body are stated by McDonald to measure $4\ \mu$ to $6\ \mu$ in length whilst those of the adoral zone measure from $8\ \mu$ to $12\ \mu$. There are two contractile vacuoles in the endoplasm one near the middle of the body and the other close to the posterior pole in addition an anal aperture is present at the posterior end of the animal. The anterior contractile vacuole is often difficult to make out. The micronucleus is sausage shaped and lies more or less transversely across the middle of the body whilst close to it is the very small spherical micronucleus often lying in a small depression on the surface of the micronucleus.

The condition of the endoplasm varies with the state of nutrition of the parasite sometimes there are numerous vacuoles each of which contains a highly refractile globule. At other times numerous food vacuoles are present and circulate in the endoplasm of the ciliate. *B. coli* is a voracious feeder and ingests red blood corpuscles leucocytes all manner of faecal debris tissue fragments when available starch grains and oil globules. Glaessner (1908) has found that *B. coli* secretes a diastatic ferment and was also able to extract a haemolysin from it, but no proteolytic ferment.

Reproduction is by binary transverse fission. The micronucleus first divides by mitosis then the macronucleus constricts into two by amitosis finally the cytoplasm constricts transversely and two daughter individuals are thus formed. The posterior individual forms a new mouth at its anterior end and more or less extensive reorganisation of the ciliary coat and other parts occurs in both individuals.

Conjugation phases have been observed by Leuckart (1861) and by Brumpt (1909-1913) but the exact details of conjugation have not so far been worked out. Brumpt states that during conjugation two ciliates become attached to one another by their peristomes and become enclosed in a cyst.

During encystment the ciliate secretes a thick transparent—almost cellulose like—cyst wall which consists of two layers. Inside this the animal continues to revolve for some time whilst its contractile vacuoles still contract. It then comes to rest its ciliary coating is shed and the vacuoles cease to contract and disappear. Food bodies are digested or eliminated before encystment and the most conspicuous structure in the cyst is the large macronucleus. Irregular refractile bodies—often of considerable size and presumably of the nature of a food reserve substance—are

frequently seen inside the cysts. The cysts are round or slightly ovoid and commonly measure from $50\ \mu$ to $60\ \mu$ in diameter. They are therefore the largest protozoal cysts encountered in human faeces. Cysts containing two individuals instead of one have been described by Brumpt who considered that conjugation occurred within the cyst. The cyst appears to be a purely protective structure for no multiplication has been seen to occur within it.

Brumpt and Yersing through a Medium for the Culture of Bacteria and Yeasts (1911) have reported the successful culture of *Paratyphus coli* of man. The medium used consisted of 1 part of inactive human faeces in 16 parts of 0.2 per cent saline. The faeces containing about 8 c.c. of this medium were inoculated at the bottom with one tenth of a c.c. of a diluted faecal suspension and incubated at 37°C . Division was delayed and an increase in numbers took place. Maximum growth occurred in from 48 to 72 hours and subcultures were made every 24 hours as a rule. Encysted forms were observed in some of the cultures and the absence of apparent conjugation was encountered.

CHAPTER IV

The Bacteriology of Bacillary Dysentery

THE term dysentery is a very unfortunate one to use from the point of view of considering its causative organism since it only describes a clinical syndrome. As we have already seen amoebic dysentery is a complication in only some 10 per cent of persons infected with *E. histolytica* and the bacillus of Flexner is the commonest cause of dysentery in India. On the other hand there are many sufferers from chronic colitis whose lesions are due to organisms other than the dysentery group of bacilli. The bowel may be ulcerated at different levels and by different organisms according to the age of the patient. Thus in children the lesion present is often an ileocolitis due to such organisms as the *Bacillus proteus* (Mitschnikoff), *B. morganii*, *B. pyocyaneus* etc. These conditions require study on lines totally different from those dealt with in this book. In adults most of the primary invaders of the bowel are organisms belonging to the so called typhoid coli group i.e. Gram negative coecal bacilli most of those which produce ulcerative lesions of the large intestine are non motile and—so far as is known at present—none of them ferment lactose. They may therefore be defined as Gram negative coecal bacilli all of them non lactose fermenters and they can grow in the presence of bile salts. They may be classified as follows—

(A) *Non motile producing acid in glucose but no gas*

(A 1) *Non fermenters of mannite*

(a) The Shiga Kruse group which produce no indol

(b) The *Bacillus paradyseriae* group which produce indol

(A 2) *Fermenters of mannite but producing indol in various degree*

The races of dysentery bacilli here concerned are—

The bacillus of Flexner

The bacillus of Strong

The Y bacillus of His

(B) *Motile producing acid and gas in glucose*

In this group we have —

- The *Bacillus proteus* of Metchnikoff which appears to be capable of producing enteritis in children and which is occasionally found in adults
Bacillus morjani types *salis* which are apparently capable of producing mucous diarrhoea in adults
 The *Salmonella* group such as the *Bacillus aertrycke* and *Bacillus enteritidis* of Girtner which cause vomiting and diarrhoea (food poisoning)

In cases of chronic colitis on plating out the stool one notices that instead of the intestinal flora consisting mainly of lactose fermenters of the *B. coli* group with colonies of more or less regular size the plate shows —

- (a) Many colonies which are transparent non lactose fermenters also opaque non lactose fermenters or late lactose fermenters i.e. colonies which become red after 48 hours
- (b) Instead of getting uniform sized colonies one frequently sees large opaque moist colonies yeasts endomyces etc. or tiny colonies of yeasts streptococci and staphylococci

The question therefore arises What role do these organisms play in the production of diarrhoea or dysentery seeing that the whole of the intestinal flora is altered from the normal? Are they

- (i) The cause of the colitis as Castellani believes such organisms as the metadysentery bacilli to be?
- (ii) Are they merely secondary invaders of the ulcerated surfaces such secondary invasions being apparently especially common in the case of *Staphylococcus mollis* and the *Bacillus pyocyaneus*?
- (iii) Are the conditions present in the intestine merely more favourable for the growth of these organisms? Or
- (iv) Have these secondary invaders replaced the primary causative organism such as the bacillus of Flexner and are they keeping up the ulcerative process? This applies especially to the *B. paradysenteriae* and *B. metadysenteriae*

Much further work will have to be carried out on this subject before we are in a position to answer these questions properly. There are certain criteria which must be fulfilled before an organism can be accepted as the causal agent of a given condition. For example (a) the organism concerned should not be normally present in the intestine (b) it should be possible to produce the characteristic lesions concerned on injection or ingestion of cultures in the case of experimental animals or suitable human volunteers (c) the patient's serum should show specific antibodies such as agglutinins or precipitins to the organism concerned.

It is along such lines of work that this problem should be investigated. For the time being we may regard these organisms as secondary invaders of the ulcerated gut. They may be classified as follows —

(A) *Non lactose fermenters*

(A 1) No change in glucose

B. pyocyaneus

B. farctus alkaligenes

B. metadiffuens (an organism which usually gives a very copious growth)

(A 2) Produce acid but no gas in glucose

B. faecaloides

B. prunellae

B. lunaeensis

B. carolinus

(A 3) Produce acid and gas in glucose

B. asiaticus

B. mobilis

B. pseudo asiaticus

B. diffuens

B. paradiffuens

B. coagulans

B. paracoagulans

B. pseudo morgani

B. pseudo-carolinus

(B) *Late lactose fermenters*

B. metadysenteriae

B. gummat

These have small colonies

(C) *May or may not ferment lactose*

Yeasts

Streptococci

Staphylococci

The so called *Monilia* or *Parasaccharomyces ashfordi* which occurs in cases of sprue will not grow well on McConkey's or Conrad Drigalski's media. On Sabouraud's agar however on culturing the stools of such cases one gets two types of colonies —

(i) Creamy coloured greasy colonies

(ii) Drier yellowish and more spongy looking colonies

The former are commoner in late cases of sprue

A further point to which our attention was first drawn by Dr. K. P. Banerji, M.D., D.M., Assistant Professor of Bacteriology, Calcutta School of Tropical Medicine, is that in these cases of chronic colitis it is often possible to isolate these secondary invaders by culture of the urine, since they escape from the gut into the general circulation from time to time and are eliminated in the urine. This observation was first made when studying cases of epidemic dropsy. Up to date the following types of organisms have been recovered from the urine of such patients —

Non lactose fermenters

No acid or gas in glucose

B. faecalis alba *aligenes*

Acid and gas in glucose

B. proteus

B. asiaticus

B. asiaticus mobilis

Lactose fermenters Coliform group

B. coli communis

B. coli tropicalis

B. cloacæ

B. entericus

B. parv. entericus

B. acid. lactici

B. lactis aerogenes

B. metadiffuens

B. richanda

Late lactose fermenters

B. metadysentericus

Staphylococcus mollis

Streptococci of various kinds

These organisms must have come from the intestinal tract and have invaded the blood stream in embolic showers, though they are difficult to isolate in culture from the blood, since their passage through it is transient. The best method of isolating them is to take a 20 c.c. specimen of urine by catheter into a sterile flask and to incubate this sample by itself at 37° C.

In dealing with the bacteriology of the dysentery bacilli and allied organisms it is impossible within the limits of this book to cover the subject completely, and for details of methods of culture, sugar reactions, methods for agglutination, vaccine

preparation etc we must refer the reader to any standard text book on bacteriology Here we shall only attempt to deal with certain special features in such work Taking this group of bacteria as a whole—and with special reference to the dysentery bacilli—we may deal with the subject under the following headings —

(1) *Morphology* In the fresh stools during the early phases of an attack of bacillary dysentery the microscopic picture presented consists of red blood corpuscles innumerable leucocytes—chiefly of polymorphonuclear type and not degenerated—and mucus In the waterways between the clusters of cells—and often not visible until the focus is slightly raised—are small clusters of non motile bacilli the dysentery bacilli After the first few days however the microscopical picture changes the red corpuscles disappear numerous pus cells are seen and much mucus At the same time the environment now appears to become especially favourable for the growth of enteric protozoa so that vegetative forms of *Trichomonas hominis* *Chilomastix mesnili* *Entamoeba coli* and *Endolimax nana* are frequently seen at this stage The waterways in the faecal emulsion are now crowded with motile bacilli of coliform type and large diplococci (enterococci) Finally the stool still shows mucus and *Blastocystis hominis* is a common finding at this stage In more chronic cases budding forms of yeasts are often seen In the stool of early sprue one sees numerous fatty acid crystals a large number of yeasts many of them budding with or without mycelial elements

The dysentery bacilli are short oval or more or less coccal bacilli about 1 to 3 μ in length rounded at the ends and plumper in appearance than the *B typhosus* The length is slightly greater than the breadth In fluid culture media after some days involution forms are seen these are sometimes serpentine in shape at other times spindle shaped The different races cannot be distinguished from one another morphologically

(2) *Staining reactions* All the organisms belonging to this group are Gram negative bacilli from young cultures stain readily with any aniline dye

(3) *Motility* Examination for motility is best carried out by taking a drop of a young broth culture about 6 hours old This should be placed on the centre of a cover slip and inverted on to a hanging drop slide The edges of the cover slip should now be well luted with vasoline If this is not done evaporation from the edge of the hanging drop may lead to a lateral movement of the bacilli which gives a false impression of motility this is especially the case when working under an electric fan There are two types of pseudo movement which must not be mistaken for true motility viz —

(a) *Brownian movement* This is a fine oscillatory movement which is inherent in any suspension of fine particles

(b) A translation movement when the organisms are observed to move from one place to another either across the field or into the depths of the fluid This is especially set up by evaporation from the edge of the hanging drop In order

not to mistake such a movement for true motility the hanging drop should be allowed to rest for some minutes on the stage of the microscope before it is examined in order to give time for all sinking particles to settle to the bottom.

The dysentery bacilli are all non motile also the *B. paratyphosarum* and the *B. asiaticus*. The organisms of the coliform group are nearly all motile.

The absolute test for motility is staining for flagella. The best method is Zettnow's. Details are as follows —

Logarithmic cultures. About 24 hours old are the best for use. Use a clean cover slip free from grease so that a drop of water spreads uniformly over it and does not gather to a globule. The bacteria should be as separately as possible and the film should contain as little of the nutrient medium as possible.

Procedure. Take some tap water in a watch glass carefully take one platinum loopful of the water of condensation of the culture and gently touch the water in the watch glass with it and allow the culture to diffuse. Add drop of 1 per cent osmic acid solution (this should be kept in the dark and away from air and should not be more than a month old). It should not contain any black precipitate to the water in the watch glass and give it a slight stir. Allow to stand 5 minutes.

On each of two clean coverslip glass a drop of distilled water. Gently take a loopful of the emulsion from the watch glass and make a film by passing a cover slip over it giving it a circular movement without touching the coverslip. This is repeated fresh until flagella. Take one loopful from each slip. No film with the repetition of the procedure on a slip.

Allow to dry in air. When dry hold the coverslip by the finger and pass through the flame three times to fix. Too much heat should not be employed.

Method. Make an emulsion of 10 parts of pyroxylin acid (which has been freed from not oxidised) in 100 c.c. of distilled water and warm to about 60°C. Add gradually to it 5 g. of the ammonium tartrate (the amount will vary with different brands of acid) of a solution of 1 g. of ammonium tartrate in 40 c.c. of water) and stir till the precipitate is dissolved. If on cooling the mixture is very turbid add some more acid solution bit by bit till the mixture is just clear. The mixture should not be more than 10 days old. It should be kept in a cool place at 100°C. with a yellow arsenic.

Verifying. Take a watch glass and place it on a water bath. Place 5 c.c. of the mixture in it with the glass so as to fill it.

Bring the water bath to a boil when the mixture should be brought to a boil. Gently put the cover slip prepared in (films placed downward) into the boiling water and allow it to remain in the mordant on the boiling water bath for 7 minutes.

Next remove the watch glass from the water bath and allow it to cool down until the mixture begins to become white. Appearance on the inside of the cover slip and wash well in cold water. The mordant should be washed off the cover slip with distilled water.

Staining. Ethylamine solution. To 3 g. of ether sulphate thoroughly mixed with 100 c.c. of water to form a saturated solution. The density of the mixture with a request volume of water is put into a test tube and a 33 per cent solution of ethylamine is added drop by drop until the mixture is just clear. The solution should be 1:1. It should not mix with ammonium.

Staining. The preparation which has been mordanted washed and allowed to dry is a now in the solution and in a separate flask. It is placed with the film in the boiling water bath until it is well with the film (it) become black.

When running water runs in water and if accidentally stained amount in black.

If the flagella are not stained by staining the mordanting is defective. In such a case the mordant will require more ammonium. If the preparation is the thylamine solution contains too much ethylamine the mordanting is too high to be added to it.

When required for use 100 c.c. of this is melted in streaming steam. Then proceed as follows—

(i) Dissolve 1 gram of chemically pure lactose in 15 c.c. of distilled water with the aid of gentle heat.

(ii) Dissolve 0.25 gram of anhydrous sodium sulphite in 10 c.c. of water.

(iii) To the sulphite solution add 0.5 c.c. of a saturated solution of basic fuchsin in 95 per cent alcohol.

(iv) Add the fuchsin sulphite solution to the lactose solution and then add the whole to the melted agar.

(v) Pour at once into Petri dishes and allow to harden thoroughly in the incubator before use.

Everything depends on getting the correct pale delicate salmon pink colour in the plates. If this is obtained results are very clear cut. Coliform organisms give red colonies, the *B. typhosus* group fine delicate slightly greyish colonies and the *B. dysenteriae* fine dew drop like colonies which are to all intents and purposes colourless. If the colour of the medium be a little too deep however or if it be unevenly distributed in the plate colonies of the *B. dysenteriae* may assume a slightly pinkish tinge which tends to be a source of confusion.

Method of Cultivation

The stool should if possible be a freshly passed one since it is practically impossible to isolate the dysentery bacillus from a stale stool. If the stool contain mucus a shred of the mucus is taken for plating. In the case of a formed stool—as when examining for the carrier state—the best plan is probably to take a very minute fragment of the stool in a platinum loop and emulsify this in 10 c.c. of broth in a test tube. This is then incubated for 6 to 8 hours and a loopful of this emulsion is then used for spreading the plate.

The plates to be inoculated should be kept upside down for 24 hours before inoculation in the 37°C incubator. This will ensure that they are sterile, that their surface is dry and that they are warm when inoculated. If this precaution is neglected water of condensation is very apt to form on the surface of the medium and cause the colonies to run into one another.

The plate to be inoculated is divided into four equal sectors by marking it with two cross lines on the under surface of the lower half of the Petri dish with a grease pencil. The sectors are then numbered 1, 2, 3 and 4. The spreader is a glass rod bent to a right angle a short distance from its end by heating it in the flame. It must be sterile and cool otherwise the bacilli will be killed by the heat of the rod.

If mucus is present in the stool a tiny shred of mucus is picked up on a sterile platinum loop and is first well washed in sterile saline to remove extraneous organisms. In the case of a formed stool a loopful from the broth emulsion is used.

The shred of washed mucus or small loopful of emulsion is now placed on sector 1 and the spreader applied until the whole surface of the rod in contact with the medium is charged with material. This is now rubbed fairly heavily over sector 1 with 1 or 5 vigorous rubs less heavily over sector 2 and very lightly indeed and only once or twice over sectors 3 and 4. If this be properly done the colonies on sectors 3 and 4 will be easy to isolate and sufficiently far apart from one another for easy working.

The inoculated plates are now placed upside down in the 37°C incubator and examined at the end of 21 hours. The following types of colonies may now be encountered —

- (i) *Lactose fermenter colonies*. These are red in colour and may be of large or medium size (the coliform group) or fine and dew-drop like (streptococci and yeasts).
- (ii) *Lat lactose fermenters*. These are medium or large red colonies opaquely white and showing a red centre by transmitted light. Later on usually at 18 hours incubation these colonies become pink or redish.
- (iii) *Non lactose fermenters* including the dysentery bacilli. The number of these present varies with the intestinal state of the patient and the freshness or otherwise of the stool when it is plated. In a perfectly fresh stool from a case of acute bacillary dysentery in the early phase an almost pure culture of colonies of dysentery bacilli may be obtained. If the attack has persisted for some days however one fifth or less of the colonies present may be those of non lactose fermenters. In the case of the carrier state colourless colonies may be very difficult to find.

The non lactose fermenters concerned are —(a) The dysentery bacilli. These colonies are generally the smallest present on the plate and tend to occur in irregular chains interposed between the larger and denser colonies. They are clear colourless dew drop like colonies with a regular or very slightly wavy outline. (b) Colonies of the *B. typhosus* group may be present in the case of an enteric carrier. (c) The blue colonies of the *B. fixalis alii/aligenes* may be present. or (d) opaque colonies of non lactose fermenters such as the *B. carolinus*.

The selection of the right type of colonies for further investigation requires a good deal of care and practical experience otherwise a lot of unnecessary work is done in picking up by mistake colonies of organisms other than those of the dysentery group. The plate should be examined first by transmitted light with the aid of a watchmaker's glass or a hand magnifying lens. (For this work a corneal loupe with a headband that fits round the head and holds the loupe automatically in place is very useful.) When viewed by transmitted light the colonies of the dysentery bacilli appear as tiny clear colourless droplets with an even regular

or slightly wavy outline. As a rule Flexner bacillus colonies are less refractile and of a more irregular outline than those of Shiga's bacillus. The absolute transparency—or sometimes a very slight shade of pink—in the colony when viewed by reflected light against a white surface is helpful. Or the plate may be placed on a dark surface and examined by reflected light when the translucency of the colonies shows up well.

As a rule from 4 to 6 suspicious colonies should be picked up from each plate. Each colony is now inoculated on to the surface of an agar slope *only the upper half of the surface of the slope being inoculated*. These inoculated agar slopes are now incubated for 4 to 6 hours at 37°C. In working with a batch of plates this procedure will save a whole day of working time, the colonies are picked off the plates and inoculated on to the upper half of the agar slopes in the morning; by the afternoon there is then a sufficient growth on the agar slopes to allow of the inoculation of sugar media. After the sugar media have been inoculated the smear on the agar slope is then carried over its whole surface with a sterile platinum loop. On the next morning—2nd day—the sugar reactions will be ready to be read whilst profuse growths will be available for serological tests and—if necessary—for vaccine preparation.

In cases of suspected sprue plates of Sabouraud's agar are inoculated in four sectors by the same technique as above. The composition of Sabouraud's medium is as follows—

Maltose	4.0 grms
Peptone (Chassagny's is preferable to Witte's for the medium)	1.0 grm
Agar	2.5 grms
Water	100 c.c.

the reaction being adjusted to +2 (pH 6.0)

The plates are inoculated in the same way with a spreader. Mould colonies are large, greasy, heaped up and of an ivory colour.

The Identification of the Organism

It will be seen from the preceding sections that a given race of *B. dysenteriae* cannot be identified by merely examining it under the microscope. Having isolated a suspicious strain we have still to investigate the following points with regard to it—

- (i) Morphology. Is the organism a Gram negative coccil bacillus?
- (ii) Is it non motile?
- (iii) Does it produce indol or not?
- (iv) What sugars does it ferment?
- (v) What are its agglutination reactions?

Points (i) and (ii) have already been dealt with. With regard to (iii) the smell of indol can usually be recognized on smelling a 24 hours old broth culture. Or the nitroso indol test may be applied. The technique of this is as follows:—

Nitroso indol test—A 4 or 48 hours old culture in pepton water or in sugar free broth is taken and 5 to 8 drops of concentrated indole reagent is added. Next add about 1 c.c. of a very little—e.g. 1/5000 to 1/10000—solution of indole in nitric acid. Place in the 37°C incubator and examine after 15 minutes. If the organism produces indol a rose pink colour will be present.

Thiophene indole test—This is even more delicate and will detect traces only of indol. Two solutions are required and both be in separate bottles—

- | | |
|---|----------------|
| (A) Pyridine 1 ml | 4 grms |
| Alcohol 1 (30 per cent) | 30 c.c. |
| Concentrated hydrochloric acid | 80 c.c. |
| (B) Saturated water solution of picric acid | 1 ml per 10 ml |

The organism to be tested is allowed to grow in broth. To 5 c.c. of the broth add 1 ml of (A) then 1 c.c. of (B). After 15 minutes in the warm incubator for a few moments indol will be present and a red colour will appear.

The indole test however is of minor importance in identifying the dysentery bacilli and when the laboratory worker has isolated what he believes to be a strain of the *B. dysenteriae* the question immediately arises as to whether he shall apply first the sugar tests or the agglutination test.

In this connection it is important to note that worker after worker both during the War and in recent years has emphasized the fact that when freshly isolated from the stools strains of the *B. dysenteriae* may not be agglutinable though such strains frequently become agglutinable on subculture. For such strains Andrews recommends repeated subculture in broth and testing formalinized emulsions of the subculture when such strains usually become agglutinable. The bacillus of Shiga is much more reliable with regard to the agglutination test than the bacillus of Flexner and usually agglutinates with the specific serum in dilutions of 1/100 or upwards. The bacillus of Schmitz or para Shiga bacillus of Dudgeon is an organism which gives all the sugar reactions of Shiga's bacillus but does not agglutinate with anti Shiga serum though it usually shows a marked agglutination with the patient's own serum. Also it may or may not produce indol. This organism first came into prominence in connection with an outbreak of dysentery in 1910 among Roumanian prisoners of war. It was also frequently encountered by laboratory workers in Macedonia and was also met with by Fletcher when working at Southampton and by Broughton Moxck in Italy.

Non agglutinating strains of the bacillus of Flexner are much more common. The original classification of the Flexner group of bacilli was made in accordance with their sugar reactions thus such types were recognized as the true bacillus of Flexner the χ bacillus of Hiss and Russell and Strong's bacillus. The studies of Andrews and Inman (1919) however have shown that there are four distinct

antigenic components in the group In any one given strain any one of these four components may become so prominent that a definite serological type to that antigenic component becomes recognizable. These workers insist that in testing bacilli of the Flexner group serologically an antiserum prepared against all four antigenic components should be used.

From these considerations it follows that the results of the agglutination test are of value only when they are positive and especially in the case of Flexner bacillus infections failure of the organism to agglutinate with the specific anti serum by no means excludes an infection with this organism. In general the laboratory worker will find it a safer working rule to rely on the results of the sugar tests than on the agglutination findings.

The Method of Rapid Preliminary Agglutination

During the War this method came into prominence. It is obvious that it is very much hit or miss and results are only of value if positive. Yet it may occasionally enable the laboratory worker to identify the specific dysentery organism concerned within 24 hours. The procedure is as follows —

(i) The stool is plated out on a McConkey plate and incubated for 18 hours e.g. overnight.

(ii) Next morning the plate is examined and if any suspicious colonies are found about 20 of them are picked off and emulsified together in a small quantity about 0.25 c.c. of normal saline. A thick opaque milky emulsion should result.

(iii) This is now tested for agglutination against Lister Institute high titre anti Shiga serum and anti Flexner serum by Garrows agglutinator. The glass plate of the agglutinator should be thoroughly cleaned with alcohol and ether and dried with a clean gauze cloth before use otherwise the sera and emulsion will not intermingle properly. The glass slab of Garrows's agglutinator contains 30 compartments and as many as 10 McConkey plates from the same number of patients can be dealt with at the same time.

With the special pipette of the apparatus one places in three consecutive chambers (a) a drop of anti Shiga serum diluted 1 : 50 (b) a drop of anti Flexner serum diluted 1 : 50 (c) a drop of normal saline as control. To each drop an equal quantity of the thick bacillary emulsion is added thus making the final dilution of the serum 1 : 100. The slab is then rotated for three minutes in a moist chamber (to prevent evaporation) and the result read against a dark background.

Course snowflake microscopic agglutination quite obvious to the naked eye may take place in one or other compartment should the organism be either the bacillus of Shiga or the bacillus of Flexner. If a positive result is obtained the remainder of the bacillary emulsion is tested against the specific serum to determine the end point of agglutinability at dilutions ranging from 1 : 200 to 1 : 750.

As a result of this preliminary test it is often possible for the laboratory worker to send to the physician within 24 hours of receiving the stool such a report as Bacillary dysentery Flexner's or Shiga-like bacillus isolated. Five typical colonies can then be picked off the plate and cultured on agar for the sugar tests, etc.

If the colonies on the plate are not numerous enough for this method the more likely looking colonies should be picked off the plate and cultured on agar for from 6 to 18 hours when the agglutination test can be applied by Garrow's agglutino-meter.

The Sugar Reactions

In ordinary routine examination of the stools of cases of bacillary dysentery by the methods described above using the method of inoculating only half the agar slope with each colony by the afternoon of the 2nd day from receipt of the stool there will be a sufficient growth on the agar slopes to permit of inoculation of the sugar media that afternoon. (For the method of preparation of sugar media we must refer the reader to any standard text book of bacteriology. The media may either be used fluid in test tubes fitted with the small Durham's fermentation tubes or in solid form. The latter method saves considerable expense since the media can be put up in small test tubes and inoculated by the stab method. Acidity will show itself along the line of the stab while if gas is produced bubbles and it will appear entangled in the medium.) In using fluid sugar media the strength of sugar used should be 1 per cent in peptone broth of the particular sugar used except in the case of dulcitol where the strength should be 2 per cent.

The most important sugar tests are those with mannite, glucose, lactose, dulcitol and adenite. Tubes of saccharose and maltose media may also be inoculated but with these sugars reactions are apt to be more variable than with the first five enumerated. A litmus milk tube should also be inoculated and a broth tube for the indol test. The inoculated sugar tubes should be incubated at 37°C and read at the end of 24 and of 48 hours. In the case of a McConkey plate which shows apparently negative results the plate should always be re-incubated for a second period of 24 hours as the appearance of the colonies of the *B. dysenteriae* is sometimes delayed.

The dysentery bacilli are divisible into two main groups: (a) the Shiga-Kruso group and (b) the Flexner-Strong group. The former do not ferment mannite, the latter do. The type reactions of the two classical strains are as follows:

	Indole	Citrate	Mannite	Dulcitol	Litmus milk	Indol
The Shiga bacillus	0	Acid	0	0	First acid later alkaline	0
The Flexner bacillus	0	Acid	Acid	0	First acid later alkaline	4 or 0

Table V which is modified from the one in Castellani and Chalmers *Manual of Tropical Medicine* gives the main characters of the non lactose fermenting organisms found in the intestine and faeces. The table we fear is nothing like complete or accurate but as far as it goes it may serve as a rough guide to the identification of these organisms.

Confirmation by the Agglutination Test

We have seen that the tests hitherto employed in our routine examination for the *B. dysenteriae* have consisted of testing its morphology and staining reactions examining it for motility and testing its biochemical reactions. Having proceeded so far the next and final step is to confirm the finding by the agglutination reactions.

It is impossible within the limits of this book to describe the various methods of applying the agglutination test and for details of the capillary pipette method and of Dreyer's method we must refer the reader to standard text books of bacteriology. On one point all workers on the dysentery bacilli are agreed that for these organisms the macroscopic method is far and away preferable to the microscopic one. The velocity of the agglutination reaction with the dysentery bacilli is much less than that with the *B. typhosus* group. Where an immediate report is wanted the tubes can be incubated at 55 C for at least four and a half hours. Ordinarily the tubes should be left in the warm incubator overnight or allowed to stand on the laboratory bench for 24 hours. An occasional Flexner strain may even require a period of 24 hours on a water bath at 55 C before agglutination occurs.

The senior writer usually uses the capillary pipette method first putting up the culture with Lister Institute polyvalent high titre serum to determine that the organism belongs to the *B. dysenteriae* group then testing it with the specific high titre serum at high dilutions to obtain the end point. The following method is given by Manson Bahr Perry and Manson (1922).

Emulsions are made of the living organisms in sterile normal saline. The resultant fluid should be distinctly opalescent. It should be dropped by means of a drop pipette into narrow glass agglutination tubes (preferably with a conical end) containing an equal quantity of the specific immune rabbit serum as issued by the Lister Institute. Two rows of tubes should be used one for Shiga sera the other for Flexner sera (preferably made from the several recognized agglutination strains). The dilutions should commence at 1:100 and should be taken as high as 1:1000 or better still dilutions can be made by Dreyer's method which however requires more mathematical reckoning but utilizes less serum and fewer tubes. After addition of the serum the tubes should be well shaken and placed in the incubator for two hours at 37 C. Sedimentation does not occur so readily as it does with enteric organisms therefore on removal from the incubator the

Glucose (AG)

Organisms

ility

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d

mus milk

especially is rapidly killed off in the passed stools by the growth of saprophytic organisms

(6) Successful isolation depends upon the nature of the contaminating organism or organisms. Thus certain organisms and especially the *B. pyocyaneus* when present inhibit the growth of the dysentery bacilli. Admixture of urine with the stool also inhibits their growth.

These authors record the following findings from the records of 250 cultures of bacillary dysentery stools in Palestine —

Character of specimen	Percent of successful isolations
(a) Fresh gelatinous blood stained mucus. Cellular exudate fresh pus cells and few visible bacilli	73.3
(b) Glairy mucus. No blood. Cellular exudate pus cells and macrophages	6.5
(c) Blood and mucus. Disintegrating pus cells and numerous motile bacilli	44.4
(d) Blood and mucus flakes intermingled with feces	31.7
(e) Rile stained blood and mucous. Disintegrating but stained pus cells and red cells	33.0

In the case of examination for bacillary carriers these authors advise that a minute portion of the faeces should be thoroughly emulsified in 10 c.c. of sterile distilled water or saline and a drop of the emulsion be spread with a platinum loop on the plate in a spiral manner using progressively smaller quantities of emulsion for each successive plate. This gives a satisfactory distribution of the colonies. For isolation of the dysentery bacilli at post mortem examination the best material to take is either from the bases of the ulcers or from the mucus retention cysts the latter often yield almost pure cultures of *B. dysenteriae*.

In the case of secondary invading organisms in the stool in addition to cultures in sugar media it may be necessary to apply the methyl red test and the Voges Proskauer reaction to differentiate organisms of the *B. coli* group from those of the *B. cloacae* group. Details of these tests are as follows —

Methyl Red Test — This is positive with organisms of the *B. coli* group and negative with those of the *B. cloacae* group. A special peptone medium has to be employed which is made up as follows —

(1) To 800 c.c. of distilled water add 5 grms. of protease peptone (Difco or Winters peptone) 5 grms. of dextrose and 5 grms. of dipotassium hydrogen phosphate (K_2HPO_4). (A dilute solution of K_2HPO_4 should give a distinct pink with phenolphthalein.)

(2) Heat over steam with occasional stirring for 30 minutes.

(3) Filter through folded filter paper cool to $60^\circ C$ and dilute to 1000 c.c. with distilled water.

(4) Distribute in 5 c.c. portions in sterilized tubes.

(5) Sterilize by steaming for 30 minutes on each of three consecutive days.

The indicator solution is made by dissolving 0.1 gm. of methyl red in 300 c.c. of absolute alcohol and diluting to 500 c.c. with distilled water.

Lactose fermenters — red
(Lactose — AG)

	Organisms	Motility	Indol	Voges & Proskauer reaction	Saccharose	Dulcité
1	<i>B. capsulatus</i>	0	++	+	AG	0
2	<i>B. cloacae</i>	+	+	+	AG	0
3	<i>B. coscoroba</i>	0	0	—	AG	0
4	<i>B. lactis aerogenes</i>	0	0	+	AG	0
5	<i>B. metacoli</i>	+	+	0	AG	AG
6	<i>B. neapolitanus</i>	0	+	0	AG	AG
7	<i>B. oxytocus perniciosus</i>	0	+	+	AG	AG
8	<i>B. para entericus</i>	+	+	0	AG	AG
9	<i>B. pseudo coli</i>	+	+	0	AG	AG
10	<i>B. pseudo coliformis</i>	+	+	0	0 AG	AG
11	<i>B. gasiformans non liquefaciens</i>	0	0	+	AG	0
12	<i>B. acidilactis</i>	0	+	0	0	0
13	<i>B. coli tropicalis</i>	0	+	—	0	0
		+	+	0	0	0

Procedure. Inoculate the special pepton medium and incubate at 37°C for 48 hours. Then add 15 drops of the methyl red indicator solution. Add the dyed colour to be regarded as a positive result. A distinct yellow colour as a definitely negative result. Intermediate colours as an indication.

Log. Probable Error. This is positive with organism of the *B. cloacae* type and negative with the *B. coli* type. It depends on the formation of acetyl methyl carbinol in the presence of glucose.

The procedure is as follows:—Inoculate a 1 per cent glucose pepton tube with the organism to be tested and incubate for 3 days. Add 1 to 3 cc of ferric potassium solution and allow the tube to stand for 4 hours at room temperature. If positive a fluorescent orange colour results. A weak colour is a doubtful result.

The Lactose and Late Lactose Fermenters

The importance of these organisms has already been discussed. Table VI gives the chief points in the identification of the various strains.

The Toxins and Immunity Reactions of the Dysentery Bacilli

That the *Bacillus dysenteriae* is the cause of bacillary dysentery was first proved by Strong and Musgrave (1900). These workers administered a 18 hours old culture of *B. dysenteriae* by the mouth to a condemned criminal. A typical attack of bacillary dysentery followed and dysentery bacilli were recovered from the stools. The patient then recovered from the attack. Since then there have been several instances of accidental infection of man from cultures in the laboratory.

The animals most susceptible to inoculation with the *B. dysenteriae* are rabbits, dogs and young guinea pigs. Intraperitoneal inoculation is followed by suppurative peritonitis which proves fatal. The intestine may show acute hyperaemia but death usually ensues before there has been time for symptoms of dysentery to develop. Intravenous inoculation is followed by a septicæmia with symptoms of paralysis and death occurs very rapidly. After subcutaneous inoculation of a 24 hours old culture there is intense local inflammation at the site of injection and fever. A day or so later acute diarrhoea set in the stools containing much mucus and sometimes blood. Paralysis of the hind extremities next sets in and may become generalized. The temperature falls steadily and the animal dies about the fourth or fifth day after inoculation.

The bacillus of Shiga is as a rule a very toxic organism producing very powerful toxins which give rise to the severest types of dysentery with fever. The toxins produced by this organism are threefold in nature. They are—

(1) An exotoxin which is dialysable and free from the bodies of the bacilli. It can be separated from the bacilli by filtration and is a protein in nature. Against this exotoxin an antitoxic serum can be prepared which will neutralize the toxin *in vitro* as well as in the patient's system.

(2) An endotoxin which is contained within the bodies of the bacteria and is non filtrable and non dialysable. An antibacterial serum can be prepared by

Lactose fermenter = red
(Lactose = AG)

	Organisms	Motility	Indol	Vooges reaction	Saccharose	Dextrite
1	<i>B. capsulatus</i>	0	±	+	AC	0
2	<i>B. cloacae</i>	+	+	+	AG	0
3	<i>B. coscoroba</i>	0	0	-	AG	0
4	<i>B. lactis aerogenes</i>	0	0	+	AG	0
5	<i>B. melacola</i>	+	+	0	AG	AG
6	<i>B. neapolitanus</i>	0	+	0	AG	AG
7	<i>B. ozytocus perniciosus</i>	0	+	+	AC	AG
8	<i>B. para entericus</i>	+	+	0	AG	AG
9	<i>B. pseudo coli</i>	+	+	0	AG	AG
10	<i>B. pseudo coliformis</i>	+	+	0	0 AG	AG
11	<i>B. gasiformans non liquefaciens</i>	0	0	+	AG	0
12	<i>B. acidilactis</i>	0	+	0	0	0
13	<i>B. coli tropicalis</i>	0	+	-	0	0
		+	+	0	0	0

Procedure. Inoculate the special pepton medium and incubate at 37°C for 48 hours. Then add 5 drops of the methyl red indicator solution. A distinctly red colour is to be regarded as a positive result. It is by how clear as a faintly negative result. Intermediate colours are an all term at result.

Log. Iroski et al et al. This is positive with organisms of the *B. cloacae* type and negative with the *B. coli* type. The result is on the form of acetyl methyl carbonyl in the presence of glucose.

The procedure is as follows:—Inoculate a pepton tube with the specimen to be tested and incubate for 3 days. Add 1-3 cc of strong caustic potash solution and allow the tube to stand for 4 hours at room temperature. If positive a fluorescent orange colour resulting weak on result.

The Lactose and Late Lactose Fermenters

The importance of these organisms has already been discussed. Table VI gives the chief points in the identification of the various strains.

The Toxins and Immunity Reactions of the Dysentery Bacilli

That the *Bacillus dysenteriae* is the cause of bacillary dysentery was first proved by Stron, and Musgrave (1900). These workers administered a 48 hours old culture of *B. dysenteriae* by the mouth to a condemned criminal. A typical attack of bacillary dysentery followed and dysentery bacilli were recovered from the stools. The patient then recovered from the attack. Since then there have been several instances of accidental infection of man from cultures in the laboratory.

The animals most susceptible to inoculation with the *B. dysenteriae* are rabbits, dogs and young guinea pigs. Intraperitoneal inoculation is followed by suppurative peritonitis which proves fatal. The intestine may show acute hyperaemia but death usually ensues before there has been time for symptoms of dysentery to develop. Intravenous inoculation is followed by a septicæmia with symptoms of paralysis and death occurs very rapidly. After subcutaneous inoculation of a 24 hours old culture there is intense local inflammation at the site of injection and fever. A day or so later acute diarrhoea sets in, the stools containing much mucus and sometimes blood. Paralysis of the hind extremities next sets in and may become generalized. The temperature falls steadily and the animal dies about the fourth or fifth day after inoculation.

The bacillus of Shiga is as a rule a very toxic organism producing very powerful toxins which give rise to the severe types of dysentery with fever. The toxins produced by this organism are threefold in nature. They are—

(1) An exotoxin which is dialysable and free from the bodies of the bacilli. It can be separated from the bacilli by filtration and is a protein in nature. Against this exotoxin an antitoxic serum can be prepared which will neutralize the toxin in vitro as well as in the patient's system.

(2) An endotoxin which is contained within the bodies of the bacteria as a non-filtrable and non-dialysable. An antitoxical serum can be prepared by

injecting killed cultures of the bacteria intravenously into rabbits. A first injection of 0.5 c.c. is given followed five days later by a dose of 1.0 c.c. The rabbit is bled about the twelfth day after the second injection when its serum is usually found to possess very powerful agglutinins and gives a very high end point.

(3) Pressor bases which are extremely toxic are dialysable and diffusible and not easily destroyed by heat. Acton, Chopra and Boyd (1923) have shown that these pressor bases are formed from the amino acids of the protein molecules in the gut and can be isolated in the argenin fraction. They are therefore not identical with histamine which is found in the histidine fraction. When injected into animals these bases cause all the symptoms of acute dysentery with collapse and the passage of blood and mucus. On administration the toxin causes increased peristalsis, dilatation of the vessels in the portal area and hæmorrhages into the submucosa of the large intestine. It also has a marked action on the uterus and this accounts for the frequency of miscarriage in the case of pregnant women suffering from dysentery due to the bacillus of Shiga.

From these findings it follows as detailed in Chapter V that the essential principles in the treatment of an acute attack of dysentery due to Shiga's bacillus should be (1) to inject the specific antiserum in order to neutralize the exotoxin, (2) to remove the source of supply of the pressor bases by giving a preliminary purge such as castor oil and to cut animal proteins out of the diet in order to minimize the supply of such proteins and (3) to inhibit the multiplication of the Shiga bacilli in the intestine by giving a purely carbohydrate diet with plenty of glucose by the mouth.

The bacillus of Flexner and the mannite fermenting group are as a rule much less toxic than the bacillus of Shiga and give rise to a much less severe dysentery. The toxins produced by these organisms are twofold in nature viz —

(1) An endotoxin which is not filtrable and not diffusible. A bactericidal serum can be prepared against this toxin by injecting dead emulsions of the bacilli into an animal such as the rabbit. This bactericidal serum is of no use during the acute attack of dysentery but it has a high agglutinating power.

(2) During its growth the organism converts the amino acid tryptophane into indol but no pressor bases that are active pharmacologically are formed.

(3) Many of the sugars are fermented with the production of irritating acids.

The rational line of treatment of bacillary dysentery due to the mannite fermenting group of organisms therefore should consist of (1) the elimination of the carbohydrates from the bowel by a preliminary purge, (2) the administration of a purely protein diet since no poisonous pressor bases are formed. These patients show a marked intolerance to carbohydrates.

The Serological Diagnosis of Bacillary Dysentery

There has been considerable difference of opinion as to the value of serological methods in the diagnosis of bacillary dysentery: the method of testing the agglutinating powers of the patient's serum against known strains of the *B. dysenteriae*. A freshly prepared emulsion of *B. dysenteriae* is extremely sensitive to agglutination and fallacious results may be due to this. The macroscopic method of carrying out the test alone is suitable. Manson Bihr Perry and Manson emphasize the special value of Dreyer's technique for this test and claim that the use of the standard formalinised emulsions eliminates any ultra-sensitive strains. Using this method they claim that a positive agglutination at a dilution of 1:2, is diagnostic of an infection with the bacillus of Shiga and one at 1:50 is diagnostic of infection with the bacillus of Flexner. The agglutination reaction with the patient's serum is far more constant and reliable in the case of infections with Shiga bacillus than in the case of infections with the mannite fermenting group.

The agglutinins generally first appear in the serum about the seventh day of the disease, reach their maximum about the twenty-first day and thereafter rapidly decline. The agglutination test is therefore not of much value before about the eleventh day of the disease. On the other hand by this time it is nearly hopeless to attempt to isolate the dysentery bacilli from the stools by plating, so that the agglutination test has a definite value in cases seen at a late phase in the disease. Previous inoculation of the patient with a protective vaccine may cause agglutinins to be present in his serum for some months and in such cases the agglutination test should be repeated at four-day intervals in order to test for a rise in the titre of the agglutinins. Here again Dreyer's technique is of special value in demonstrating the end point of the reaction.

After the subsidence of the disease the agglutinins may continue in the blood for some time. Manson Bihr Perry and Manson record positive agglutination as long as 3½ years after convalescence. A previous attack of bacillary dysentery therefore may interfere with diagnosis by serological methods.

The limitations of serological diagnosis are therefore obvious and in any case the test is of no value prior to the seventh day of the disease.

Vaccine Therapy in Bacillary Dysentery

This subject will be referred to again in Chapter VI but we may here discuss its rationale and its application. Vaccine therapy is useless for acute cases and should be reserved for chronic infections.

(1) In chronic Shiga bacillus infections and in infections with para-Shiga bacilli in a civilian community vaccine therapy is extremely useful in bringing about a cure. These infections are only rarely seen in a chronic stage, however.

(2) In chronic infections with the mannite-fermenting group, especially in chronic infections with Flexner's bacillus and less commonly in chronic infections

with the bacillus of Strong vaccine therapy usually brings about a cure. In many such cases however it is extremely difficult to isolate the primary dysenteric organism and it has often disappeared and has been replaced by secondary invaders such as the *B. pyocyaneus* the *B. meta dysenteriae* etc. In such cases the patient's serum should be tested by the agglutination reaction against whatever secondary invaders are isolated. Should the reaction be sufficiently indicative that the secondary invader is playing a pathogenic role this organism may be added to the vaccine of the primary dysentery bacilli.

Thus after repeated examinations of the stool we may fail to find the bacillus of Flexner whereas the patient's serum gives a positive agglutination to this organism indicating a previous infection with it. The cultures of the stool however yield the *B. meta dysenteriae*. In such cases one would use a stock vaccine of Flexner's bacillus to which the autogenous strain of *B. meta dysenteriae* is added. In other instances for example we may isolate the bacillus of Strong and in spite of treatment with an autogenous vaccine of this strain diarrhoea may continue. On further plating the *B. pyocyaneus* may be isolated. In this case we add the autogenous strain of *B. pyocyaneus* to the vaccine. In many of these cases of chronic bacillary infection vaccine therapy with a vaccine of *B. dysenteriae* causes improvement up to a certain point and then the condition remains stationary. In such cases every attempt should be made to isolate secondary invading organisms and to test their pathogenicity by the agglutination reaction against the patient's serum. If these tests fail it may be advisable to have the entire intestinal tract x-rayed after a barium meal in order to see whether some mechanical defect which causes stasis may not be responsible for the condition.

(3) Still more rarely we may have to deal with non lactose fermenters which produce acid and gas in glucose such as *B. morganii* types 1 and 11. Again autogenous vaccine therapy may be indicated.

(4) *The vaccine treatment of sprue*. If the view put forward in Chapter VIII be accepted that sprue is usually a sequel of a chronic infection with the bacillus of Flexner or sometimes Strong's bacillus followed by a secondary invasion of the gut epithelium by a streptococcus of viridans type then treatment by vaccines must depend on the phase of the disease present.

In the early phase if Flexner's bacillus or Strong's bacillus be isolated an autogenous vaccine should be prepared from this source. If streptococci and especially streptococci of haemolytic type be isolated either from the stools or from the lesions on the tongue the vaccine should be prepared from this source. Finally in the late stage where *Lindomyces* or *Parasaccharomyces* infection has set in in the gut an autolysed vaccine of these fungi may occasionally give brilliant results. In the final phases of the disease however where there is extensive atrophy of the intestinal epithelium vaccine therapy is useless.

Preparation of Vaccine and Dose

For details of the method of vaccine preparation we must refer the reader to the standard text books on bacteriology. Here we can deal only with certain points in connection with this matter.

Most workers consider that vaccines of *Shigella bacillus* are too toxic for use in man. In consequence of this there have been many attempts to produce modified *Shigella bacillus* vaccines, thus Shiga himself originally proposed simultaneous injection with a vaccine and with anti-dysentery serum. Craigmiles (1917) produced a zero vaccine during the War. Be redka used a fully sensitized vaccine whilst Olitsky and others have employed hypovaccine. Fortunately the cases in which a vaccine of *Shigella bacillus* is called for are relatively rare being confined to the few chronic carriers of this organism or the few cases of chronic infection with it. In our experience simple emulsified vaccines of *Shigella bacillus* prepared from agar culture are safe to use provided the dosage given is not too high. The initial dose should not exceed 100 million organisms and the dose should be gradually raised to 10 or 15 million.

Having obtained a pure culture of the *B. dysenteriae* an agar slope is inoculated and incubated at 37°C. for 24 hours. 10 c.c. of 0.5 per cent carbolic saline is now added to it and with a steril platinum loop the surface growth is gently rubbed off the agar and thoroughly emulsified in the carbolic saline. The emulsion is then pipetted off into a fresh sterile test tube which is plugged with flamed cotton wool.

We have next to standardise this emulsion. There are several different methods for doing this of which we may mention the following—

(1) *Standardisation by area of surface of the medium.* With a steel rule carefully measure the length and breadth of the growth on the surface of the agar before preparing the emulsion. This gives the square surface area of the growth. Suppose for example that it is 1 cm. by 1.5 cm. This gives 1.5 square cm. of growth. Add to this 9 c.c. of 0.5 per cent carbolic saline and emulsify. With rapidly growing organisms such as the typhoid and dysentery bacilli then 1 c.c. of the emulsion has a strength of approximately 4000 million organisms. For more slowly growing organisms such as *Streptococci* the strength of the emulsion is approximately 1 c.c. = 1000 million organisms. The emulsion should then be diluted to a strength of 1 c.c. = 100 million organisms.

(2) *Protein opacity method.* [Brown and Kitman (1915) Brown (1914)] In this method a 1 per cent emulsion of well washed and reagent barium sulphate is prepared in 1 per cent aqueous sodium citrate solution. This is diluted into a series of dilutions from 1/8 to 1/9 etc. to 1/16 of the original emulsion. Each solution is then put up in a small standard test tube and the emulsion is left. The tubes are then placed in a rack, the tubes are standardised and obtained in India from the Director of the Central Research Institute, Calcutta. They are

also stocked by Baird and Tatlock (*Biological Apparatus Catalogue* 1927 item No B 3637) at £1 1 0 the set

The bacterial emulsion having been prepared it is diluted placed in a miniature test tube similar to those containing the barium sulphate emulsion and matched with one or other of the standard tubes. In doing this the tube containing the bacterial emulsion and the different barium solution tubes are placed side by side on a page of printed matter in a good light. Matching occurs when the print is equally dimmed in both tubes. The strength of this emulsion is then read off in the table provided and the bacterial emulsion diluted down to the required strength.

Brown's opacity method is perhaps the quickest reliable method of standardisation of bacterial vaccines and the laboratory worker who has much vaccine preparation to do would do well to equip himself with the apparatus.

(3) *Standardisation by the hæmocytometer* This method is the most accurate of all. The bacterial emulsion is diluted to a known dilution in 0.5 per cent carbolic saline and a trace of carbol fuchsin added to a portion of it in a watch glass. The emulsion is then well mixed in the watch glass and the chamber of a hæmocytometer with a shallow cell 0.02 mm in depth is filled and the special cover glass applied. Ten minutes or so is allowed for the bacteria to sediment to the bottom of the chamber. The number of bacteria in 100 small squares is then counted using the $\frac{1}{4}$ th inch objective and a high eyepiece. From the count so obtained the actual strength of the emulsion is determined and the necessary dilutions made. If great accuracy is required two or three drops may be counted and an average struck.

(4) *Standardisation against a red blood corpuscle count* This method is no as accurate as the direct count in the hæmocytometer. The laboratory worker first carries out a count of his red blood corpuscles in the Thomas Zeiss hæmocytometer in the usual way. Taking a sterile capillary pipette equal volumes of the bacterial emulsion and the laboratory worker's blood from the pricked finger are mixed in it and the mixture spread in thin films on slides. These are allowed to dry and are then fixed with alcohol and stained—preferably by carbol fuchsin. Using a square Ehrlich's ocular eyepiece the number of red corpuscles and of bacteria in 100 fields is counted. As the red cell count is known by the preliminary count it is then possible to ascertain the strength of the bacillary emulsion.

This method is a laborious one but involves no special apparatus. The square Ehrlich ocular is advisable but not essential.

With regard to streptococcal vaccines Hurvey (1921) states that vaccines prepared from agar cultures have much less antigenic value than those prepared from broth cultures. He advocates culturing the streptococcus in trypsin broth free from glucose and killing by adding 1 per cent carbolic acid using no heat at all. Such a vaccine will have to be standardised by method (3) or (4) above since Brown's

opacity method is only applicable to emulsions from growths on agar slopes. On the other hand we have always employed vaccines prepared from agar slopes.

The carbolised bacillary emulsion having been standardised it is next diluted with 0.5 per cent carbolised saline to a strength of 1 c.c. = 100 million and incubated at 37 C. for 24 hours. The next day three tests should always be applied to each brew of vaccine made viz. —

(a) An aerobic culture is taken on agar to ensure that the organisms in the vaccine have been killed.

(b) An anaerobic culture should be taken on agar to ensure that the emulsion has not become contaminated with anaerobic organisms such as the *B. tetani*.

(c) A full dose of 1 c.c. should be inoculated hypodermically into a guinea pig or other susceptible animal. This animal is then kept under observation for three or four days. If no toxic symptoms manifest themselves the vaccine will presumably not cause too toxic symptoms in man.

In the meantime the vaccine is filled into an amber coloured vaccine bottle and sealed with a sterilized rubber cap. When the cap has been applied the whole is sealed by tying the cap in place with sterilized thread, inverting it into a bath of molten paraffin wax and stored in a dark and cool place until wanted for use.

Dosage. It is impossible to lay down any hard and fast rule for dosage with regard to vaccines of the dysentery bacilli. The only safe working rule is to go slow. Reactions may be of two types, either fever and malaise with headache or a sharp attack of diarrhoea. If either of the two occurs the next dose given should be the same or a little less than the dose with which reaction occurred. It is to be noted that light haired persons usually react more severely to vaccines in general than do dark haired persons.

With regard to vaccines of Shiga's bacillus the first dose should not exceed 5 million organisms. If there is no marked reaction the second dose may be 10 millions and the dosage may be increased to 15 millions as a maximum. With vaccines of Flexner's bacillus the initial dose may be 10 million followed in turn—if no marked reaction takes place—by 20 million, 40, 50, 50, 75 and finally 100 million, the maximal dose for this vaccine. Streptococcal vaccines may be given in the same dosage as for vaccines of Flexner's bacillus.

The following instructions for the use of autogenous vaccines are taken from the senior author's laboratory —

The dose should be modified according to the nature of the reaction obtained. Doses must be small in cases of children and aged persons. The maximum dose for an old person is 0.5 c.c.

Injectations are to be given twice a week intracutaneously (not subcutaneously) and once a week when the maximum dose is reached.

About eight injections will probably be needed. It is needless to say that local and general treatment should be carried out along with the injections.

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The dose should be modified according to the nature of the reaction obtained. Doses must be small in cases of children and aged persons. The maximum dose for an old person is 0.5 c.c.

Injectations are to be given twice a week intracutaneously (not subcutaneously) and once a week when the maximum dose is reached.

About eight injections will probably be needed. It is needless to say that local and general treatment should be carried out along with the injections.

The cap of the vaccine bottle should be sterilized with tincture of iodine before puncturing with the hypodermic needle and the puncture point should be sealed with a heated rod after each use

The vaccine must be kept in a dark and cool place and should be thoroughly shaken before use. Sediments in the vaccine should not be mistaken for contamination

The prophylactic use of vaccines against bacillary dysentery is discussed in Chapter IX

CHAPTER V

The Treatment of Acute Dysentery

The treatment of an acute or subacute attack of dysentery consists of two main principles —

- (a) knowing what to do for your patient and
- (b) knowing when to do it

The very first essential is an accurate diagnosis. As has been shown previously it is usually possible by clinical examination of the patient and by microscopical examination of the stools —supplemented if necessary by the use of the sigmoidoscope—to give an immediate diagnosis of either amoebic dysentery, balantidial dysentery or probably bacillary dysentery. This is sufficient to go on with

Acute Bacillary Dysentery

Here we have to recognise that there are two main types of the disease.

(a) Bacillary dysentery due to a non-motile fermenting bacilli of the Shiga-hara type. In this case colic may be present and pyrexia is usually marked. The stools are very frequent 16 or more a day but may vary from none at all in the acute gangrenous type with paralysis of the gut to the incessant passage of stools resembling rice water but containing flakes of blood stained mucus. The Shiga bacillus produces both an intracellular and an extracellular toxin and also produces poisonous presorins from animal proteins.

(b) Bacillary dysentery due to minute fermenting bacilli of the Flexner-Strong type. In this case colic does not occur as a rule, pyrexia is less marked and the stools are usually less than 16 a day. The blood and mucus in the stool may not be visible to the naked eye and many cases present the symptoms of a mucous diarrhoea the stools being fresh coloured or pink. The so-called hill diarrhoea is usually due to infection with the bacillus of Flexner. The Flexner bacillus produces an intracellular but no extracellular toxin. It produces indole and similar compounds from animal proteins and ferments carbohydrates with the exception of lactose.

Both groups are facultative anaerobes and hence can infect the large intestine in contrast to the cholera vibrio which is a strict aerobe and hence can only infect the small intestine. Both groups can exist at a wide pH range of

from 5.4 to 9.1 so the administration of alkalis is of little use in bacillary dysentery. The production of toxin by the bacillus of Shiga takes place best at a pH of 7.5. The growth of Shiga's bacillus is inhibited by sugars such as glucose.

Secondly it is essential for the medical practitioner to visualise the pathological lesions present in the gut. In infections with Flexner Strong bacilli the lesions are as a rule superficial only in character consisting chiefly of exfoliations and erosions of the mucous membrane with the bacilli situated chiefly in the follicles of Lieberkuhn. In infections with the Shiga Kruse group there is much more extensive infection of the solitary follicles with deeper ulceration and here the importance of rest is very great. In both groups the ulceration may be kept up by invasion with secondary organisms such as streptococci or Vincent's infection with the fusiform bacillus and Vincent's spirochete even after the dysentery bacilli have disappeared from the gut. Further as some 15 per cent of humanity in the tropics is parasitised with *Entamoeba histolytica* a proportion of some 15 per cent or more of all cases will be mixed infections.

Armed with this knowledge we shall know what treatment to adopt and when to adopt it.

General Lines of Treatment The first and most important principle in treatment is to place the patient at absolute rest in bed. The ulcers in the gut will take ten days or so to heal and no medical practitioner would allow a patient with a severe ulcer of the foot to walk about. Because the patient cannot feel pain in his intestinal ulcers is no reason for allowing him to walk about. He must be put to bed and kept there no matter what are his wishes or protests. Further he must not be allowed to get up to go to the latrine but be made to use the bed pan. If the patient is not kept in bed the bacillary dysentery frequently becomes chronic in type and this is especially the case with mild infections due to the bacillus of Flexner where the patient only has a mucoid diarrhoea for a few days and neglects proper treatment of the condition.

Warmth is of importance in the treatment of bacillary dysentery especially so where there is a tendency to collapse and a hot water bottle applied to the abdomen is often very helpful. The stools must be inspected daily as their character and number and the state of the tongue are the best guides to prognosis.

With regard to diet all solids must be withheld. In infections with Shiga's bacillus—which will have to be diagnosed tentatively pending the isolation of the bacillus in the laboratory—all animal proteins should be eliminated from the diet as this measure will materially help in reducing the toxæmia. The diet should consist solely of carbohydrates such as arrowroot barley water glucose feeds tea or coffee—with very little or no milk. These cases do not tolerate milk well as a rule but when the temperature has come down to normal and the stools are improving milk and finally proteins may be gradually added to the diet. In Flexner bacillus

infections on the other hand carbohydrates should be eliminated from the diet, and such articles as meat-extracts chicken broth citrated milk jellies weak beef tea and later eggs should be given. During convalescence fish and meat may be gradually added to the diet but carbohydrates should be added last of all. Many of these patients show intolerance to carbohydrates for a long time. In both groups of cases the food should be given slightly warmed as cold drinks are apt to increase intestinal peristalsis and in small quantities at a time. Dysentery patients should not be rushed through convalescence for the ulcers take time to heal and any indiscretion in diet is very apt to be followed by a relapse.

In very severe and fulminant cases the incessant use of the bed pan exhausts the patient's strength and a better plan is to put a waterproof sheet which can be changed every few hours under the patient and to pack the buttocks with tow or cotton wool. It must always be remembered by the attendant that the stools are highly infectious and it is as well if the nurse wears rubber gloves when washing the patient or changing his bedding.

Specific Treatment

Antiserum Polyvalent antisera against strains of Shiga Kruse type are manufactured by the Fuster Institute Burroughs Wellcome and Co. Parke Davis and Co. Mulford and Co. (Philadelphia) the Lorne Institute and by Professor Shiga in Japan. Opinion is nearly unanimous that their administration is of very great value in dysentery due to Shiga's bacillus. (They are of no value in Flexner infections as the toxin of the Flexner bacillus is an intracellular one.) It has long been a matter of surprise to us that no standardised antidyenteric serum is manufactured in India. Shiga bacillus infections are so common in India that the need for a supply of fresh standardised serum seems very great.

The serum should be administered within the first 18 hours of the illness if it is to be of any use and its use is valuable after 48 hours from the onset of symptoms. It should be given intravenously and in large doses, e.g. 60 to 80 c.c. for an adult. If there is any reason to suspect that the patient has previously received an injection of serum—e.g. against tetanus or diphtheria—a desensitising dose of $\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 c.c. of the serum may be given subcutaneously 12 hours before the larger intravenous dose, or one may start the intravenous injection with 5 c.c. of the serum well diluted with saline and if no reaction occurs continue to inject the full dose.

Flaher and Japps (1924) record very disappointing results with antidyenteric serum but they seem to have used it indiscriminately in cases due to both types of bacilli. They record that serum was given to 246 consecutive cases (*B. dysenteriae* Flexner 246 *B. dysenteriae* Shiga 30) with 74 deaths—case mortality 30.1 per cent. In the control group of 329 patients (*B. dysenteriae* Flexner 318 *B. dysenteriae* Shiga 11) where no serum was given 100 died—case mortality 30.4 per cent. Even when the serum was administered at the beginning of an

attack it was almost always useless and it effected no real reduction in the mortality they write. They then proceed to discuss the reasons for this disappointing result. The doses given were large—as a rule about 60 c.c.—and the serum was sent out from the Lister Institute in cold storage. It showed a full agglutination titre against Flexner's bacillus but rapidly lost its agglutinating properties against Shiga's bacillus. They conclude that the reason for the failure of the serum lay not in the serum itself but in the fact that malaria and other concurrent diseases had reduced the condition of their patients to such a state of weakness and exhaustion that they were beyond the possibility of recovery. The serum used in one year cost £305 and if it had been possible to apply this sum of £305 to the prevention of the destitution which is so often the precursor of fatal dysentery many of those who died might have been alive to day.

On the other hand it is obvious from Fletcher and Jepps' figures that the greater majority of the patients in whom the serum was used were cases of infection with the bacillus of Flexner and in such cases the serum cannot have much value. A serum prepared by immunising horses with the bacillus of Flexner has a bactericidal action on the bacillus but no antitoxic action as the bacillus does not produce extracellular toxins. On storage the serum rapidly loses its normal complement and when injected into the human subject there will be but little combining reaction between the bactericidal substance in the horse serum and human complement. It is especially in severe cases of Shiga's bacillus infection seen within the first 48 hours of the disease that the serum is of value and general opinion is that its value in such cases is very great. But—in view of Fletcher and Jepps' findings that even serum sent out to the tropics in cold storage rapidly loses its potency in transit and storage—it seems very advisable that the specific serum should be manufactured in India.

Bacteriophage

What appears to be a very promising line of treatment in bacillary dysentery is the use of bacteriophage. Everything here however appears to depend on the selection of the right strain of bacteriophage. Through the kindness of Professor d'Herelle we have been able to try the bacteriophage treatment on 15 cases of Flexner's bacillus infection. The dose usually given is 1 to 2 c.c. of the bacteriophage daily by the mouth. Some of the cases appeared to do very well on this line of treatment in others administration of bacteriophage did not appear to assist in the patient's recovery. Fleteber (1927) records disappointing results after the use of bacteriophage in Flexner infections. He tried the treatment on 22 patients making daily bacteriological observations on the stools. Dysentery bacilli persisted in the stools of 6 patients for more than 10 days after the commencement of treatment in 11 cases bacilli were found up to the 6th day but not on the 8th day. In 5 cases dysentery bacilli were not found after the 4th day. Three of

the patients died and dysentery bacilli were isolated from the colon of all three at post mortem examination. He reckons that experimentally it was found that the bacteriophage used was more active against Shiga's bacillus than against Flexner's bacillus. It was tried in one case of dysentery due to Shiga's bacillus and here no dysentery bacilli could be isolated from the stools after the 2nd day of treatment.

Fletcher's results seem to indicate the necessity for a most careful selection of the strain of bacteriophage used when tested *in vitro* it should show strong potency against the specific strain of dysentery bacillus concerned. Malone and Bird (1927) record the use of bacteriophage in three cases of Flexner infection of rather severe subacute type at Kasauli. In two of these dysentery bacilli disappeared from the stools on the 3rd day—in the third case the stool was not examined on the 3rd day but gave negative results on the 4th day.

Further observations on the use of bacteriophage in bacillary dysentery are badly wanted for this line of treatment if successful would be an ideal one—it would enable one to deal with the chronic bacillary carrier also perhaps even to disinfect infected water supplies by inoculating them with bacteriophage.

Medical Treatment

If the patient is seen during the earlier phases of the disease it is advisable to administer castor oil to which a little tincture of opium has been added. This has the effect of clearing out the contents of the small intestine which may be loaded with proteins and carbohydrates—the result of pancreatic digestion. This dose is best given the last thing at night in order that the saline aperient treatment may be begun the next morning. Or it may be administered at once if the patient is seen in the early stages of the disease.

As soon as the castor oil has acted and preferably from the early morning treatment with saline purgatives is commenced. There is no other line of medical treatment of bacillary dysentery so satisfactory and so simple as the use of magnesium sulphate or sodium sulphate in 1 drachm doses every four hours. The aperient sulphates act mechanically, flushing the toxins out of the gut, altering the pH of its contents to a more alkaline condition and hence checking the production and absorption of toxins. The sodium salt is probably less irritant than the magnesium salt and the following prescription for its administration is given by Manson and Birr.

R. Sodium sulphatis	1 drgm
Acid sulphurici dil	m xv
Tinctura zingiberis	m v
Aquam Menth. Pip	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz

this dose to be administered every four hours until the stools become feculent. After this the same dose may be given at six hour intervals and later three times in the day.

The routine use of opium in the treatment of dysentery is to be most strongly condemned. In many cases however where the patient is worn out with the constant tenesmus and pain and cannot obtain sleep $\frac{1}{2}$ grain of morphia may be given hypodermically at night. The resulting rest and sleep will materially help in his fight against the disease. A good working rule is that if the patient has had no sleep for two nights and the temperature is falling to give $\frac{1}{2}$ gr of morphia with 16 gr of atropine sulphate.

A few patients tolerate saline aperients badly and in such cases it may be necessary to resort to small divided and repeated doses of calomel such as $\frac{1}{4}$ gr of calomel with 5 grs of sodium bicarbonate every 2 or 4 hours.

Of other drugs the use of bismuth is often very valuable in severe cases. The carbonate is probably a better preparation to use than the subnitrate as the latter is apt to contain impurities. A dose of 1 or 2 drachms may be given suspended in half a tumblerful of water or soda water every 4 to 6 hours until the stools become black and the prognosis is a reassuring one. The dosage should then be reduced. Kaolin is often very useful in bacillary dysentery and a preparation which we have found to be particularly useful is Morson's Osmo kaolin*. This is an electrically precipitated kaolin of very great purity and so fine that it is practically impalpable to the touch. It is perfectly harmless and may be given in large doses in the same way as the bismuth carbonate. It probably provides a protective coating to the inflamed mucosa and certainly often gives the patient considerable comfort lessening the frequency of the stools and reducing the abdominal pain and griping. Bolus alba and animal charcoal also have their advocates.

Of other drugs the so called intestinal antiseptics do not appear to be of much use in the treatment of the acute phase though they may perhaps have their place in after treatment. The mechanical removal of the dysentery bacilli from the surface of the mucosa seems to be a more practicable measure than the almost impossible attempt to kill them *in situ*. Salol in doses of 5 to 15 gr may be given in cachets or suspension but we have not found it of much value. Manson Bahr speaks well of the use of cylin in cachets each containing 2 minims of these 20 or more cachets may be given a day. Yatren is a drug which has some supporters. It is stated to consist of iodo oxy quinolin sulphonic acid according to the manufacturers and is stated to contain 36.2 per cent of iodine. The manufacturers advocate very big doses of this compound but any dose of more than 15 grains a day appears to be distinctly irritant to the gut.

Irrigation of the colon is of distinct value in very severe cases and in one very severe case seen where the patient had been drenched with emetine and his condition became critical with the incessant passage of large sloughs and much blood in very offensive stools it appeared as if repeated large warm irrigations with very dilute

permanganate solution was the measure which saved life. The simpler the irrigating fluid the better as its effect is mechanical rather than antiseptic. Warm saline or boric solution 1 drachm to the pint is perhaps best. The douche should be given slowly with a stout rubber tube at a temperature of 101°F. Anal irritation is apt to prove very distressing in children and in such patients the parts should be thoroughly cleaned and lanoline or vaseline applied.

Treatment of Special Symptoms and Cases

Collapse is easier to guard against than to overcome when it is once established. Stimulants should be given such as half an ounce of brandy by the mouth or by rectal enema. Intravenous saline should be administered in generous quantities 2 to 3 pints or more and antidyenteric serum 20 c.c. or more brandy 1 drachm and atropine sulphate gr. ½ may be added to the injection. In the choleraic cases Rogers' hypertonic saline method should be adopted. The solution consists of sodium chloride 10 gr. calcium chloride 1 gr. potassium chloride 6 gr. and sterilized water to the pint. Glucose 30 gr. may be added to this solution. The solution should be given very slowly at a temperature of 101°F about 4 oz. being run in intravenously per minute. Vomiting and hiccough are serious symptoms and if they set in hot stupes should be applied to the abdomen and the patient be given ice to suck. Arrowroot and brandy 2 drachms may be given by the mouth. A small dose of adrenalin—such as 3 minims—may be tried by the mouth and sometimes allays severe hiccough.

Children require special consideration as the disease in them is often associated with fairly high pyrexia. A small preliminary dose of castor oil should be given followed by the aperient salines. For a child under 3 years of age sodium sulphate may be given in doses of 15 grains t.i.d. The dosage of antiserum given should also be less 20 c.c. or so and it may have to be administered intraperitoneally or intramuscularly if a suitable vein cannot be found. Bacillary dysentery occurring in pregnant women is especially liable to lead to abortion and in such patients the dose of aperient sulphates should be reduced.

After Treatment

The majority of cases of bacillary dysentery do very well as a rule with rest in bed judicious dieting and the use of aperient salines for three or four days. As soon as the stools become fecal the administration of salines should be stopped and one may now give bismuth subchloride gr. 10 with pure pepsin 60 gr. 5 at 4 or 6 hourly intervals. The chief trouble with the patient who is convalescent after bacillary dysentery as a rule is constipation. The best aperient for such patients is probably liquid paraffin as it is entirely non-irritant and a dose of it may be required every evening. The patient should be told to guard most carefully against

constipation for at least three weeks after his recovery in order that the ulcerated gut may heal firmly

Bael sherbet is a useful addition to the dietary at this stage and acts as a demulcent. A single large bael fruit (*Egle marmelos*) will make two good glasses of bael sherbet. The pulp of the fruit is scraped out of its shell and emulsified in water. This should then be strained through muslin to remove seeds and mucilage and then sweetened and flavoured to the taste. Or the pulp may be mixed with sugar and cream or with *dahi* (Indian curdled milk) and eaten raw in small quantities at a time. Another good demulcent during convalescence is ispaghul. This is the gelatinous exudate from the seeds of *Plantago ovata*. About half to one drachm of the seeds are either chewed when a gelatinous exudate comes out which acts as a demulcent or the pericarp is made into a paste.

A week to ten days after the injection of the antidyenteric serum sickness may set in with pain and inflammation at the site of injection if this has been given intramuscularly, rigor, headache, diarrhoea, a blotchy urticaria which may be localized or generalized, hyperæsthesia of the muscles, joint pains and even joint effusions. The fever will have to be treated on symptomatic lines and an alkaline lotion given to allay the urticaria.

Complications

But little need be said of the complications of acute bacillary dysentery. The commonest probably is arthritis with effusion—usually of a serous character—into the joints. This is due to the action of the toxins on the synovial membrane of the joint and the commonest site is usually the knee though in one patient seen almost all the interphalangeal joints of both hands were affected. As a rule the serous exudate is bacteriologically sterile although Elworthy records an instance in which Shiga's bacillus was isolated from the fluid. At first the affected limb may have to be splinted and a Scott's dressing applied. Later hot air treatment and massage may be required. The fluid is usually not sufficient in amount to call for aspiration. Iridocyclitis is a second complication and both this and arthritis have been experimentally produced in rabbits by intravenous injection of toxins filtered from a culture of the bacillus of Shiga. Iridocyclitis is best treated by the instillation of atropine and the use of an eye shade. Parotitis is an occasional complication due to absorption of septic matter from the mouth and may require treatment with fomentations and cleansing of the mouth. A very rare complication but one which the medical practitioner should always bear in mind is invasion of the blood stream either by streptococci or the *Bacillus coli communis* through the ulcerated gut but this is a far commoner complication of mæmic than of bacillary dysentery. These complications in bacillary dysentery are usually confined to cases of Shiga bacillus infection and are uncommon though Manson Bahr (1925) records

a series of cases in which arthritis occurred as a complication in 27 per cent of the cases

Acute and Subacute Amoebic Dysentery Treatment

The medical practitioner who is called upon to treat a case of acute or subacute amoebic dysentery to-day is in a most unfortunate position for the number of supposed cures is legion and is being added to daily. By every mail there descends upon his office table a flood of literature on such drugs as yateon, dionol, stovarsol and a host of others. If the claims made for some of these specifics could be substantiated we wonder why amoebic dysentery should continue to afflict mankind. We have tried all—or nearly all—of these specifics during the past few years and will discuss their value later. In the meantime we may here state that we have found nothing as yet that will place emetine in the treatment of amoebic dysentery and it still remains our sheet anchor in the treatment of this condition.

The mode of action of emetine on *Entamoeba histolytica* still remains somewhat of a mystery. Vedder in 1912 was the first person to show that the action of ipicuanh in amoebic dysentery depended on its alkaloid emetine. It is rather amusing to both authors of this book to reflect that when we first came out to India (1908) the then latest mode of treatment of amoebic dysentery was by the oral administration of ipicuanh emetine. Sir Leonard Rogers (1913) was the first person to take up Vedder's suggestion and to introduce the alkaloid for the routine treatment of amoebic dysentery. Both these workers concluded that emetine had a direct parasitidal effect on the amoeba. Winyon (1921, 201) however points out that active *E. histolytica* either in feces or in liver abscess pus can be mixed with relatively strong solutions of emetine and that the amoebae will remain as perfectly active as the control preparation. (ph 41) It is assumed that the medium in which the amoeba hypent is found is the faecal matter or the pus, which or fixates the emetine so that it never actually comes in contact with the amoeba it must be concluded that the alk did not have any immediate toxic action on the amoeba. That such an explanation of the failure of emetine to kill amoebae in these experiments may have something in its favour is borne out by certain tests made by Ivin and Winyon (1917) on cultures of free living amoebae on agar plate. The agar was rich up with varying strengths of emetine and it was found that the amoebae did not grow on the medium which contained the salts which are known to be specifics for amoebic dysentery though the bacterial growth upon which the amoebae feed was little altered in character. Furthermore it has been shown by Brown (1927) that if the emetine solution which is to be introduced into the agar is first mixed with pus for a few minutes the liquid portion separated by centrifugation has lost its power of arresting growth of amoebae on the plate. It would seem that in this experiment the dead cells and debris in the pus had

adsorbed the emetine from the solution so that there may be some reason for suspecting that when material such as faeces or pus containing *E. histolytica* is mixed with solutions of emetine the failure of the drug to kill the amœbæ may be due in part at least to its absorption by the dead material. It has also to be remembered that even if emetine has no direct action on *E. histolytica* exposed to it for a comparatively short time it may still have such an action over a longer period in preventing growth and multiplication. It should be possible to test this point on cultures of *E. histolytica*.

Dale and Dobell (1917) investigated the action of emetine on experimentally infected cats and—at that period—came to the conclusion that its action on the amœbæ was an indirect and not a direct one. Its primary action was apparently on the host in some way rendering his tissues unsuitable for the amœbæ. Mayer (1919) came to a similar conclusion but Sellards and de Leiva (1923) have shown that amœbic dysentery is so very severe a disease in kittens that results in the kitten can hardly be compared with those in man. By administering solutions *per rectum* they showed that infected kittens could be saved at a dosage of 10 milligrammes per kilogram weight. They conclude that emetine has a weak amœbicidal action and that this plus the powers of resistance of the patient afford the explanation of the success of emetine therapy in acute amœbic dysentery.

Allen (1922) found that the blood and serum of man and cats withdrawn after the administration of therapeutic doses of emetine or when admixed *in vitro* with emetine failed to arrest the activity of *E. histolytica*. Knowles (1925 p. 69) has shown that an occasional kitten even when suffering from very severe amœbic dysentery can be saved by the administration of emetine intramuscularly at a dosage of 5 mgms. per kilo. of body weight together with large doses of bismuth carbonate by the mouth.

The latest study of the whole problem is the admirable memoir by Dobell and Laidlaw (1926). These workers tested the action of emetine and of other alkaloids on *Entamoeba histolytica* and other entamœbæ in culture. Their conclusions are as follows—

1. Emetine and cephaeline have been found to be specific poisons for *Entamoeba histolytica* under cultural conditions.

(a) For this amœbæ (in culture) these alkaloids are at least 50 times as poisonous as is emetine, psychotrine, methylpsychotrine, demethoxyemetine or noremetine.

(b) For this species also emetine has been found to be about 10 times as poisonous as stovarsol and about 50 times as poisonous as quinine under identical conditions of experiment.

2. *Entamoeba coli*, *Entamoeba gingivalis* and *Endolimax nana* have been found comparatively insensitive to the presence of emetine in cultures—*E. coli* being able to withstand a concentration of the alkaloid at least 100 times that which is lethal to *E. histolytica*.

3 The effects of solutions of emetine on *E. histolytica* are peculiar. Very strong concentrations (1 per cent or more) are needed to kill this parasite instantaneously but only very weak solutions (1 in 50 000 or less) are necessary to kill it if allowed to act for a sufficient time.

4 In view of the findings it is concluded that the curative effects of emetine in human amoebic dysentery are best explained as a result of the direct lethal action of the alkaloid on *E. histolytica*.

In brief we may conclude that emetine has a weak amoebicidal action on *E. histolytica* and cures amoebic dysentery by direct destruction of the amoebae. One important point which obviously follows the work of Dobell and Landis is that in order to eradicate the amoebic infection by treatment we must aim at maintaining continuously over as long a period as is safe a sufficiently strong concentration to kill the amoebae.

In all protozoal infections when we attempt to exterminate the parasites in the tissues of the host what appears to take place is that the drug overcomes the majority of the parasites then the bodily resistance rises and the patient's own natural powers of resistance finally exterminate the residual infection. This is almost certainly the case in kala-azar where not infrequently a patient at the conclusion of a course of treatment may still show a few leishmania in the film on spleen puncture and yet remain in perfect health thereafter. The same appears to hold good for malaria and trypanosomiasis and probably holds good for amoebiasis also.

Whilst emetine is in itself a valuable drug in the treatment of amoebic dysentery yet its administration must be most carefully controlled. As shown by Chopra and Chosh (1922) and others its effects are cumulative. It increases peristalsis, it is a cardiac and central nervous system depressant and the maximal course which is permissible for administration to an adult male in relatively fair health should not exceed 12- or at the most 15- grains. It is true that one often comes across patients who have had courses of 14 or 20 grains or even more. In one case seen in Calcutta the unfortunate patient was a clerk who could only afford Rs. 10 a week for treatment; he had received 23 grains of emetine during the course of 11 weeks, the drug having been administered twice a week. Dysentery was still present and the stool showed actively motile *E. histolytica*. On the other hand courses such as 6 or more grains have a cumulative effect and have been known to prove fatal, whilst even if they do not prove fatal emetine diarrhoea may ensue. The practitioner may consider that this is due to insufficient dosage and push the emetine administration to dangerous extremes. We know of one instance during the war where a military medical officer was accustomed to give as much as 5 grains of emetine daily hypodermically to all his dysenteric cases. If the dysentery cleared up it was presumed to have been of amoebic origin. If it did not or if the patient died a diagnosis of bacillary dysentery was made. How many patients he killed we do not know but one of the saddest of the numerous war cases which

we know of personally is that of a military medical officer whose cardiac mechanism has been permanently damaged by over dosage with emetine but who still suffers to day from periodic relapses of amoebic dysentery cannot take emetine at all and has tried a large variety of the new treatments without success

A Standard Treatment for Acute Amoebic Dysentery

When given orally the action of emetine is uncertain whilst its nauseating properties are most marked. Schürds and de Leeuw (1923) strongly advocate the administration of emetine *per rectum* and record the actual cure of experimentally infected kittens by this method yet such a method is unsuitable for large scale practice in dispensaries and it is doubtful whether such injections in man under ordinary circumstances would reach much further than the splenic flexure. What is desirable in actual large scale practice in India is some ready reliable and efficient mode of administration by the mouth or hypodermically.

During the last few years we have adopted the following as our routine treatment for cases of amoebic dysentery —

1 The patient is kept strictly in bed for ten days and made to use the bed pan. This is to give the ulcerated surfaces as complete rest as possible.

2 In the early morning a full dose of saline aperient is given to flush out the colon.

3 After this aperient has acted Deeks' bismuth treatment is instituted (Deeks 1914). As far as we can make out when large doses of bismuth salts are administered by the mouth but little is absorbed into the system. On the other hand such administration tends to convert the acidity of the colon contents in amoebic dysentery to alkalinity and we have found in experimental cats that the administration of large doses of bismuth salts slightly increases the alkalinity of the portal blood stream. Accordingly two drachms of bismuth carbonate are given every 4 hours during the day. It is best administered suspended in half a glassful of water or soda water.

4 Two and a half hours after the first dose of bismuth carbonate for the day one grain of emetine hydrochloride in solution is given intramuscularly. It is a little difficult to know whether to give these injections subcutaneously intramuscularly or intravenously. We have tried all three methods but have found intravenous administration to have no better results than by the other two methods whilst after intravenous injection of emetine the heart may be subjected to undue strain. De Castro and Deuskar (1927) also record that the results after intravenous administration are not better than after subcutaneous. Subcutaneous injections of emetine are rather apt to be followed by local ecchymoses these may alarm the patient. Intramuscular injection is painful but the patient at least cannot see the local capillary hæmorrhage which follows and the drug is well absorbed by this method. Cawston (1922) recommends dissolving the tablet of emetine in one per

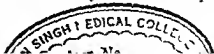
cent carbolic acid which he states renders the injection quite painless yet does not interfere with its efficacy

5 The timing of this injection is important. The senior author (Acton 1921) has found that with emetine as with quinine the alkaloid exerts its maximal activity when the environment in which it acts is on the alkaline side. Two and a half hours after the administration of large doses of bismuth salts to experimental cats there is a slight rise in the alkalinity of the portal blood stream. What we wish to attack are not the *E. histolytica* which have come out into the lumen of the colon and which have ceased to have opportunities for tissue destruction but the tissue invading forms which are causing the ulceration. Hence we desire to throw the emetine into the portal circulation and the colon submucosa if possible at the moment when the blood stream is at its most alkaline tide.

The above treatment is carried out daily for nine consecutive days. The patient is next given a three day interval during which the emetine and bismuth administration is suspended and only the light early morning saline aperient given. The complete treatment—saline aperient gr. 1 of emetine intramuscularly daily and bismuth administration—is then repeated for a further three (or sometimes six) days.

We have now reached the 10th day of treatment and it is precisely at this stage that the medical practitioner chief trouble begins. It is next necessary to ascertain by repeated examination of the stools whether the infection with *E. histolytica* has or has not been eradicated. Not less than six—and preferably eight—subsequent examinations of the stool for the cysts of *E. histolytica* should be made. (The technique for this will be dealt with in the section dealing with the *E. histolytica* carrier.) The patient however is convinced that he is cured and demands to leave hospital. Even with the most intelligent European patients it is often impossible to secure the necessary stools for examination. It is useless to examine the stools for *E. histolytica* whilst the patient is under emetine treatment for the parasite is only found very exceptionally under such circumstances. It is for this reason that we have found it almost impossible to follow up patients and to put the real value of any line of treatment in eradicating the infection—apart from the (apparent) clinical cure which this line of treatment invariably brings about.

With regard to the subsidiary points in treatment *during* is not a matter of very great importance. The amœbæ live in the tissues and hence can scarcely be affected by a change of diet. A light mild diet should be given. Milk may be given freely and chicken and fish gradually added to the diet. Such patients are very liable to suffer from abdominal chill and a warm light blanket should be worn over the abdomen. During the treatment the frequency of the stools gradually passes off. Indeed there is hardly any line of treatment in medicine attended with more immediately gratifying results. On the day of admission the patient may



be in a state of real misery yet 24 hours later he may be in relative comfort. On the 6th day or so of treatment there may be a slight diarrhoea due to the emetine administration. With the completion of treatment action of the bowels tends to become irregular owing to fibrosis of the ulcers and irregular peristalsis. Constipation must be most carefully avoided for at least three weeks after the cessation of treatment and a dose of liquid paraffin every night may be useful. Abdominal massage may be necessary especially if there is caecal stasis.

Stimulants are not necessary as a rule in cases of amoebic dysentery whilst alcohol in any form is very apt to prove irritant to an intestine ulcerated by *E. histolytica*.

Under the above treatment the patient is usually in a condition of clinical cure by the 15th day. But only too often the cure is a clinical cure only and the infection has not been eradicated. In these cases cysts of *E. histolytica* and Charcot Leyden crystals will be found in the formed stools of the convalescent patient and hemolytic streptococci may be isolated on plating the stool on Conrad Drigalski medium. In this case one will have to wait for a few days for all emetine to be excreted from the body and then treat the patient with bismuth emetina iodide and possibly an autogenous streptococcal vaccine as described in the section dealing with the *E. histolytica* carrier.

Drugs other than Emetine

We have tried a considerable number of drugs other than emetine in subacute amoebic dysentery but not one of them has given us as satisfactory results as the combined emetine and bismuth treatment outlined above. Here however we may briefly deal with such drugs.

Osmo kaolin is as useful in amoebic dysentery as it is in bacillary dysentery and it may be substituted for the bismuth carbonate in the above line of treatment. It may be given freely in large doses 1 or 2 drachms suspended in water every four hours or more often.

Yatren we have found to give rather disappointing results. Any dose of more than 15 grains a day seems to bring on diarrhoea. German and Dutch writers speak very highly of the value of this preparation but we cannot regard it as a substitute for emetine. Manson Baehr (1925) speaks well of its use but more in connection with the cases of chronic amoebiasis than in acute and subacute amoebic dysentery. He advocates a combined oral and rectal treatment. The patient is given 15 grains a day either in cachets or in tablet form. Each morning the patient's colon is first irrigated with an alkaline enema containing sodium bicarbonate after this an enema consisting of 200 c.c. of a 2.5 per cent solution of yatren is run into the colon and the patient should retain this as long as possible. The drug is taken for ten days continuously by the mouth and an enema given

each day beginning at the same time for fourteen days. If necessary a second similar course of treatment may have to be given two or three weeks later.

We have known two European patients suffering from relapsing amoebic dysentery to be apparently cured by this line of treatment as judged by repeated examination of their stools after treatment. On the other hand yatrien is expensive—Rs. 280 for a bottle of 25 of the $7\frac{1}{2}$ grain pills. The combined treatment alone is apparently successful and the drug cannot in our opinion replace emetine.

Stovarsol which is manufactured by May and Baker London has a distinct place in the treatment of amoebiasis. It is stated to be acetyl oxy amino phenyl arsenic acid and to contain 27.2 per cent of organic arsenic. On the other hand again it is expensive—Rs. 313.0 for a bottle containing 28 of the 4 grain tablets. We have not found stovarsol to be a substitute for emetine in the treatment of acute and subacute amoebic dysentery but it is of special value as an *after treatment*. Indeed in the case of European patients or others who can afford it it is the junior writer's custom to prescribe a course of stovarsol a few days after the completion of the course of emetine and bismuth whilst the drug has a definite value in the treatment of chronic amoebiasis. Its real action appears to be a tonic one on the body system leading to a rapid improvement in the patient's general health—probably due to its high arsenic content. On the other hand although it is not usual to find cysts of *I. histolytica* in the stools of a patient who is taking stovarsol once the course of stovarsol is discontinued the cysts only too frequently reappear. If one can get the patient to carry out nevertheless the best plan in convalescence after the emetine and bismuth treatment is to examine six or eight stools after the cessation of the emetine and bismuth treatment then to prescribe a course of stovarsol for ten days then to re-commence the examination of the stools. The dose usually prescribed is one of the four grain tablets broken up in half a tumblerful of water taken once a day systematically for ten days. In five instances of relapsing and chronic amoebic dysentery three of which had proved resistant to previous courses of emetine therapy this ten day course of stovarsol appeared to eradicate the infection as judged from repeated examination of the stools after the cessation of all treatment.

To sum up with regard to stovarsol we are of opinion that the drug has a definite place in the treatment of intestinal amoebiasis probably owing to its general brimstone value though we regard it as a supplement to rather than a substitute for emetine.

Kurchi is a drug with a good future in front of it in the treatment of intestinal amoebiasis whilst it has long been a favourite prescription in dysentery in the indigenous systems of medicine in India. It is prepared from *Uncaria tomentosa* a small deciduous tree which grows in the Himalayas and throughout the dry forest regions of India. The Lazar liquid extract prepared from the

powdered bark is quite unstandardised and hardly suitable for use though it is well tolerated and can be given in doses up to 2 or 3 drachms t.d.s.

The active principles of *Lurchi* bark are the alkaloids conessine and holarrhennine. The former was found by H. C. Brown (1922) to have as strong an inhibitory action on the growth of free living amoebæ as that of emetine whilst it was 50 times less toxic to mice. Chopra, Gupta, David and Ghosh (1927) find that conessine has a specific action on *E. histolytica* obtained from the stools of infected kittens. It kills the amoebæ in mucus flakes in a dilution of 1 : 280 000 in 8 minutes in the presence of an alkali and in 18 minutes in the absence of alkali and was more potent than emetine under similar circumstances. Contrary to the observations of Brown these workers found that conessine salts can be administered subcutaneously without any ill effects. On the other hand the drug is not suitable for intravenous injection owing to its markedly depressant action on the auriculo-ventricular bundle but it has no marked effect on the central nervous system of animals and when given orally does not inhibit the action of the intestinal ferment. They accordingly suggest the trial of conessine in place of emetine in the treatment of amoebic dysentery. During 1927 Lieut. Col. Chopra has very kindly placed a purified sample of conessine tartrate at the disposal of the junior author of this volume who treated six cases of subacute amoebic dysentery with it using it in 1 gram doses daily hypodermically in place of the emetine in the above standard emetine and bismuth treatment. Clinically it appeared that the conessine took longer than does emetine to get the symptoms under control. All six patients were very fit at the end of the treatment clinically but unfortunately it has not been possible to follow up their after history and to obtain stools for after treatment examination. The drug was very well tolerated on hypodermic injection—far better indeed than emetine—the injections being much less painful while the patients did not show any of the mental depression which one often meets with emetine.

In 1924 Messrs. Burroughs Wellcome and Co. kindly placed a small sample of their Tabloid Extract Kurchi Corticus gr. v at the disposal of the junior author. There was sufficient to treat two acute cases of amoebic dysentery whose stools showed numerous actively motile *E. histolytica*. The drug was administered with no other subsidiary line of treatment in large doses by the mouth. It was found that both patients readily tolerated a dose of 60 grains a day with no unpleasant symptoms; the symptoms rapidly cleared up—although not as quickly as under emetine therapy—and on subsequent examination of the stools for a few days after the completion of treatment no *E. histolytica* or its cysts could be found. Since then the junior author has used *Lurchi* a good deal in the treatment of acute amoebic infections. The hazar liquid extract unfortunately is not standardised at all whilst the 'Tabloid' product is expensive but the drug is certainly well worth further investigation.

The position with regard to *kurchi* in fact is so interesting that further investigations are urgently called for. Unlike *ipercacuanha* *kurchi* can be administered in large doses by the mouth without unpleasant symptoms. In experimental practice it appears to be an active amoebicide. There are large supplies of *kurchi* available in India and both it and cinchona could be manufactured at a price well below that of emetine. We would like to draw the attention of the big chemical manufacturers in India to this drug. As a beginning they might at least place a supply of compressed tablets of fresh *kurchi* bark on the market for if any cheap and efficient method of treating amoebic dysentery by oral administration can be worked out it might well come to replace emetine. Colonel Chopra has now a large supply of purified cinchona in hand also a supply of the total alkaloids of *kurchi* bark and it is hoped to undertake further investigations with this.

With regard to the proof of radical cure of an *E. histolytica* infection we cannot do better than quote the following passage from Dobell and Low (1922 p. 1347) —

It is the general rule that patients undergoing treatment with emetine become negative — i.e. no amoebae or cysts are discoverable in the stools — whether they are ultimately found to be rid of their infections or not. Negative examinations made during treatment are therefore of no value as a criterion of cure. This negative phase may continue for some time after the administration of the drug has ceased though the effects of the emetine usually disappear within two or three weeks of the cessation of treatment. It is moreover frequently impossible to discover either free amoebae or cysts of *E. histolytica* in the stools of infected persons — even when they have not been subjected to specific treatment. In other words the stools of untreated cases infected with the parasite are frequently negative for such reasons; therefore it is necessary to make a considerable number of examinations of the stools of any patient and to make them at suitable times if negative findings are to have any decisive value as an index of non-infection.

In dealing with a few cases only the stools may be examined microscopically every day after treatment and if they remain consistently negative for three weeks the chances are that the patient has been permanently freed of his infection. The parasites rarely reappear in the stools after such a period — if the examinations have been made daily and by a competent and careful protozoologist. In practice examination of the stools every few days for a period of about a month after treatment is usually sufficient to establish with considerable probability if all examinations have been negative that the patient has been cured. Six negative examinations made in three weeks should be regarded as the irreducible minimum required before one even ventures to speak of a cure having been effected.

The complications of acute and subacute amoebic dysentery hardly come within the scope of this book. A mild grade of amoebic hepatitis associated with fever but without the formation of pus is commoner than actual amoebic abscess of the liver. The latter condition may call for aspiration in addition to the emetine

therapy which the patient is undergoing. Local peritonitis without perforation is not uncommon; its site is usually in the neighbourhood of the cæcum and ascending colon and such cases may be mistaken for appendicitis. Sometimes but fortunately very rarely the whole thickness of the colon may pass into a condition of severe gangrene in which case no treatment is of any avail. Perforation is definitely more common in amœbic than in bacillary dysentery since the ulceration is deeper and not limited by the *muscularis mucosæ* in the same way. It may occur under two entirely different conditions: first during acute amœbic dysentery where the whole thickness of the bowel wall has been destroyed. In these cases perforation frequently takes place at several sites simultaneously and nothing can be done for the patient. The second type of perforation is seen in chronic and relapsing dysentery: here the perforation is single, the gut not gangrenous and immediate laparotomy may save life. Plastic peritonitis may even set in and cure such a condition spontaneously. Sudden and severe intestinal hæmorrhage may occur if a large vessel in the submucous coat has been opened up by the ulceration and Rogers (1921) mentions such a case as having been at first mistaken for one of duodenal ulcer.

Relapsing and Chronic Amœbic Dysentery

Chronic and relapsing amœbic dysentery is one of the commonest diseases of the tropics and one of the most difficult to treat since the extensive fibrosis of the gut wall walls in the *entamœbæ* and renders the possibility of any such drug as emetine getting at them unlikely.

The condition may follow an acute attack of amœbic dysentery and the patient who has recovered from the acute attack either spontaneously or under treatment has a relapse; again recovers; again has a relapse—this state of affairs continuing for even years on end. On the other hand the condition much more often sets in insidiously beginning as an amœbic diarrhœa and passing by gradual phases into established and relapsing amœbic dysentery. The mucosa of the colon in such cases is greatly thickened and inflamed and studded with the orifices of numerous small ulcers many of which communicate with one another in the submucous tissue. The gut wall is very greatly thickened and fibrosed and the cæcum and ascending colon are usually readily palpable. Fletcher and Jepps (1924) write: 'We found the walls of the cæcum and ascending colon thinned and dilated in all the nineteen post mortems except two. In several instances portions of the gut between the ulcers had stretched more than the surrounding parts and had formed bulging balloons on its external surface. In two cases of long continued dysentery the whole of the large intestine was much thickened and the appendices epiploicæ were greatly enlarged. In one the wall of the gut was as stiff as though it had been pickled in formalin but even in these two specimens there were certain areas where hypertrophy had failed and where there was dilatation instead.'

Such patients often show constipation alternating with periods of looseness of the bowels and occasional passage of blood. Mucus is invariably present in the stool. There is no sharp line of demarcation between the patient with chronic amœbic dysentery and the carrier with mild symptoms. Even when the stools are formed however careful examination of them will show streaks of blood stained mucus on their surface. At other times the chief symptom is diarrhœa the stool resembling pea soup but with little islands of mucus like grains of sago floating in it.

By degrees such patients become sallow they steadily lose weight and become neurasthenic. Also they tend to become very introspective taking an interest in nothing but their own abdominal condition.

The treatment of chronic and relapsing amœbic dysentery is often very difficult and it has to be even more thorough than that of acute and subacute amœbic dysentery. The patient should be put to bed and kept there. The full treatment as for acute amœbic dysentery with emetine and bismuth should first be tried. After this if examination of the stools shows that the infection has not been eradicated it may be necessary to give a course of bismuth emetine iodide as described in the section dealing with the treatment of the amœbic carrier. Stovarsol is often of definite value in such cases.

Balantidial Dysentery Treatment

Balantidial dysentery is so rare in India that very little need be said with regard to its treatment. No kind of different drugs have been tried in this condition without success and the condition is one which appears to be most difficult to treat. Walker (1913) especially advocates irrigation of the colon with organic compounds of silver and in general local medication by medicated enemata appears to be more successful than oral administration of drugs. A bland non irritating diet must be given and rest in bed is essential for the ulceration is apt to be very severe and extensive. Thymol by the mouth has been advocated. Hermette Sen Gupta and Biswas (1926) write of stovarsol a practically a specific cure for balantidial infections. They found injections of emetine to be without effect upon the parasite but the infection very rapidly cleared on giving the patients 1 four grain tablet of stovarsol daily crushed in water for 6 to 12 days.

The Treatment of Mixed Infections

In the treatment of mixed infections the medical attendant must first of all make up his mind which is the more important element in the case and deal with that first. In our experience the commonest type of mixed infection—owing to the predominance of *Flexer bacillus* infections—is for acute bacillary dysentery to supervene on more or less chronic amœbic infection. In such cases the cellular characters of the stool will be those of a bacillary dysentery but the red corpuscles

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Such patients often show constipation alternating with periods of looseness of the bowels and occasionally presence of blood. Mucus is invariably present in the stool. There is no sharp line of demarcation between the patient with chronic amebic dysentery and the carrier with mild symptoms. Even when the stools are firm, however, careful examination of them will show streaks of blood and mucus on their surface. At other times the chief symptom is diarrhoea, the stool resembling pea soup, but with little or no mucus-like grains of mucus floating in it.

By long such patients become sallow, they steadily lose weight and become neurathenic. Also they tend to become very intropective, taking an interest in nothing but their own abdominal condition.

The treatment of chronic and relapsing amebic dysentery is often very difficult, and it has to be even more thorough than that of acute and subacute amebic dysentery. The patient should be put to bed and kept there. The full treatment as for acute amebic dysentery with emetine and fismuth should first be tried. After this examination of the stools shows that the infection has not been eradicated it may be necessary to give a course of fismuth in combination as described in the section dealing with the treatment of the amebic carrier. Stovarsol is of no definite value in such case.

Bilintitidal Dysentery Treatment

Bilintitidal dysentery is so rare in India that very little need be said with regard to its treatment. No kind of better antiparasitic drugs have been tried in this condition without success and the condition is one which may at times be most difficult to treat. Walker (1917) especially advocates irrigation of the colon with emetine compounds of silver and in general local medication by means of steamed dressings are also more successful than oral administration of drugs. A mild non-irritating diet must be given and rest must be maintained with absolute necessity. It may be very severe at first, but it usually subsides in a few days. H. Hunter, Sen Gupta and Bhattacharya (1919) write that stovarsol is practically a specific cure for bilintitidal infection. They found injections of fismuth to be without effect upon the parasite but the infection very rapidly cleared on giving the patients 100 grains tablet of stovarsol daily, continued in water for 6 to 10 days.

The Treatment of Mucous Infection

In the treatment of mucous infection the most important point first of all is to make up the individual's lost strength, and start the patient on the exercise and diet that fits. In our experience the commonest type of infection is the one with predominance of *Flexnerella* infection. It is for acute bacillary dysentery its supervenience or its chronic sequelae is a question. In such cases the usual characters of the disease and its sequelae are lost but the red colour

may show a tendency towards clumping and Charcot Leyden crystals and cysts—but only rarely vegetative forms—of *Entamoeba histolytica* may be found. Usually however the condition is not recognised until the physician finds that treatment of the bacillary dysentery fails to cure the dysentery present and is driven to re-examine the stools repeatedly.

In such cases it may be possible to combine a daily injection of emetine with the treatment of the bacillary dysentery by saline aperients to first cure the bacillary infection which is the more important and then deal later with the amœbic one. Fletcher and Jepps point out that it is not at all uncommon for patients admitted for the treatment of chronic amœbic dysentery to contract bacillary dysentery whilst in hospital.

The opposite condition—of acute amœbic infection supervening on chronic bacillary dysentery—is very much rarer though it must be remembered that some 15 per cent of patients with bacillary dysentery like the rest of humanity in the tropics are carriers of *E. histolytica* infection. Here the amœbic infection may require to be treated first and the best line of treatment would probably be to give large doses of osmo kaolin by the mouth and emetine hypodermically.

CHAPTER VI

Chronic Bacillary Dysentery and the Bacillary Carrier

WERE every case of acute or subacute bacillary dysentery kept in bed and properly treated we should probably see but little of chronic bacillary dysentery and the carrier state. As matters actually stand, however, the condition is very common indeed, though perhaps less common than chronic amoebic infection.

The bacillary carrier is almost invariably a person with a definite history of previous dysentery or definite diarrhoea some time previously—it may be two or three years before. Unlike what happens in the chronic amoebic carrier the intrastatal history is usually well marked.

It is a little difficult to get figures as to the incidence of this condition and the most reliable are probably the ones gathered during the Great War. Martin and Williams (1918) working in Leavenworth found that on convalescence from acute or subacute bacillary dysentery the excretion of dysentery bacilli in the stools dropped very rapidly. In material embracing more than 1,000 cultural examinations 68 per cent were positive during the first 5 days, 15 per cent during the second 5 days, 6 per cent during the third 5 days. By the 50th day only 3 per cent were positive and after this only one case was positive—at the 80th day. Andrews (1923) records that in the hospitals in the United Kingdom 5.56 per cent of some 5,000 returned dysentery cases became carriers but that in the majority of cases the condition soon cleared up. Glynn Britton, Ellis, Price and Robinson (1918) found 1.8 per cent of carriers among 100 patients who had suffered from bacillary dysentery and were supposed to be cured. Dulgeon (1919) states that in Massachusetts Lepper found that three months or more after the attack of bacillary dysentery 1.1 per cent of the patients concerned were carriers.

Perhaps the most exhaustive study of the carrier problem is that given by Fletcher (1920) who worked at Southampton. Of 172 convalescent patients at this hospital 93 had been diagnosed as cases of dysentery and of these 13 were found to be carriers of the bacillus of Shiga and 61 carriers of Flexner's bacillus. As regards the former the condition was an intermittent one in 11 out of the 13 Shiga bacillus carriers and special note was made of the physical and mental depression which these men presented. All passed more or less as sometimes proved in their stool and there was marked liability to relapse. The stools of these 13 men were examined 463 times and Shiga's bacillus was isolated on 207 occasions. It is this incessant

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excretion of dysentery bacilli by Shiga bacillus carriers that probably renders them so important a source of small and violent epidemics of this form of bacillary dysentery. With regard to carriers of Flexner's bacillus conditions were found to be quite different the men were in relatively good health the stools formed but containing mucus and the excretion of the bacilli markedly intermittent. Treatment of both conditions was found to be extremely unsatisfactory. The Shiga bacillus carrier was useless for military purposes at the end of three months and a danger to his companions and had to be invalided. The Flexner bacillus carrier on the other hand could be sent back to the front.

The figures given above for incidence of the carrier condition are probably well below the actuals owing to the difficulty in isolating the bacilli.

Pathology

The degree of ulceration of the colon in chronic bacillary dysentery and in the carrier state varies very widely. The smallest lesions are lenticular in shape and involve the mucous membrane only. The ulcers commence on the free edge of the transverse folds and run at right angles to the longitudinal axis of the gut. The more advanced lesions amount to ulceration of limited tracts of the mucous membrane rarely if ever penetrating below the muscularis mucosae. In chronic relapsing cases the mucosa may be so extensively destroyed that recovery is impossible in such cases the gut may resemble a piece of chamois leather with interlaced fibrotic strands on the surface. Many cases show but little ulceration but rather a granular condition of the mucosa usually confined to the lower portion of the colon and rectum but sometimes distributed in an irregular manner. Considerable infiltration of the walls of the gut is associated with this condition.

A special feature of the colon mucosa in chronic bacillary infection is the presence of mucous retention cysts—to which attention was first drawn by Man on Bahr (1919). These rather resemble grains of tapioca and vary in size from that of a hemp seed to that of a cherry. They are distributed throughout the large gut and stand out from the mucous membrane into the lumen of the gut as knob like excrescences. On incision clear jelly like mucus can be expressed from them. These cysts form beneath the base of a contracting bacillary ulcer and their existence probably does much to explain the intractable mucous colitis which is so liable to persist after an attack of bacillary dysentery and which it is so difficult to treat successfully. They may contain almost pure cultures of the *B. dysenteriae* or may become secondarily infected with the *B. coli communis* and thereby converted into small abscesses in the wall of the colon. Sometimes a pin hole orifice leads down into the cyst from the lumen of the gut. Actual pus pits may exist the mucous membrane being full of little pits full of pus the walls of the intestine much thinned out and in places the pus may burrow down to the serous coat.



FIG 17 Chronic bacillary dysentery. Infection with *Flexner* bacillus. Patches of black semi-healed ulceration from which *B. dysenteriae* was cultivated. Died from cirrhosis of the liver and anasarca.
(After Fletcher and Jepps 1944)

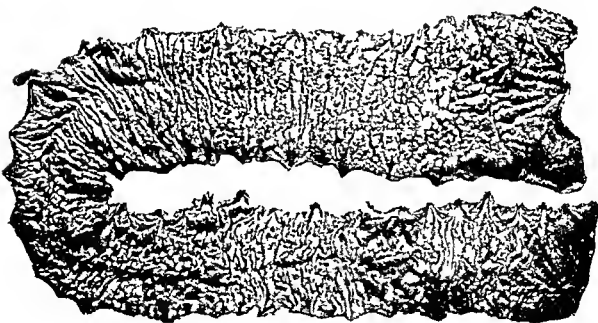


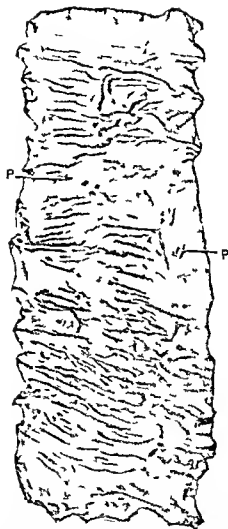
FIG 18 Subacute bacillary dysentery. Infection with *Shigella* bacillus. Granular toad-skin ulceration.
(After Fletcher and Jepps 1944)



FIG. 19. Section of the intestinal wall with Flex. cells. The intestinal wall is folded into longitudinal ridges. The intestinal wall is full of holes. (After Fletcher and Jones 1944)



FIG. 20. Section of the intestinal wall with Flex. cells. The intestinal wall is folded into longitudinal ridges. The intestinal wall is full of holes. The wall of the intestine is very thin and in places the epithelium had burrowed down to the serous coat. (After Fletcher and Jones 1944)



110 1 Bacillary carrier *B. dysenteriae* in retention cysts. As ending colon with isolated pigment pit marked P containing pus. *P. dysenteriae* Flexner was cultivated from pus squeezed out of these little pits.
(After Fletcher and J pp. 114)

The base of the bacillary dysenteric ulcer consists of red or pigmented granulation tissue and its margins are not raised. Where healing has occurred pigmentation is characteristic of the chronic bacillary ulcer. In rather severe but chronic cases the ulceration may extend beneath the mucous membrane undermining it in all directions and linking up neighbouring ulcers by submucous tunnels. The mucosa may finally become converted into a fibrin-friable membrane loosely attached here and there to tissue underneath partly concealing large areas of ulceration and necrosis.

In other cases the ulcers become covered with thin pigmented scar tissue under which slow suppuration takes place until the scar breaks down and pus is discharged. After this the ulcer may heal again only to break down once more. Chronic ulcers in all stages of ulceration or healing may be found at post mortem.

Another feature of the gut in chronic bacillary dysentery is the formation of actual polypoid growths which may attain a length of from three quarters to one inch. They are generally found scattered throughout the lower part of the rectum and may be the seat of hemorrhage. They are often associated with retention cysts and if they should become detached considerable hemorrhage may occur.

On section of the chronic bacillary ulcer remains of epithelium may be found at the base of the ulcer supported by fibrous tissue whilst a downward growth of columnar epithelium takes place into the submucosa. The mucosa in the immediate vicinity of the ulcer is hypertrophied but otherwise fairly normal. In the submucosa much fibrous tissue can be seen. The downward growth of the epithelium may continue until pseudo adenomata are formed filled with mucoid secretion. These mucus retention cysts may occupy the whole thickness of the mucous membrane. At first they are lined by perfectly regular columnar epithelium but when they attain a certain size the cavity is lined merely by basement membrane the columnar epithelial cells having become atrophied from pressure. The centre of the cavity is occupied by structureless material in which only scanty and degenerated polymorphonuclear leucocytes can be made out.

Symptomatology

There is one fact which is invariably associated with chronic bacillary—as well as chronic amebic—infection of the colon and that is that *the stool invariably contains a visible amount of mucus*. This is of very great importance from the point of view of prophylaxis. As shown by Cunningham (1933) microscopic examination of the stools of all inmates daily is a most important method of controlling dysentery in jails or similar institutions a point to which we will recur later when considering the subject of prophylaxis.

The commonest type of chronic bacillary dysentery or of the carrier condition is due to infection with Flexner's bacillus. Next in order of frequency comes chronic dysentery due to Strong's bacillus, then infections with Shiga's bacillus whilst some of the chronic diarrhoeas of the tropics are due to infections with the bacillus of Morgan or to bacilli of the paratyphoid group. The toxins which are absorbed from such an ulcerated gut act in various ways chiefly causing diminution in the tone of involuntary muscle. This leads to intestinal stasis, viscerospasm and later tropical neurasthenia. Chronic diarrhoea with painful peristalsis may persist for long periods or may alternate with periods of constipation. There may be marked and palpable thickening of the gut. Apparently normal stools coated with mucus may be passed for a shorter or longer period but any error in diet, chill, fatigue or indulgence in alcohol may be followed by sudden and violent attacks of diarrhoea or dysentery. From time to time blood and mucus are present in the stools in the form of gelatinous sago-like grains floating on the fluid feces. The condition is particularly intractable and may persist for years. The patient—not infrequently a middle-aged European female—may gradually pass into an utterly miserable condition, the chronic abdominal type so amusingly described by Hutchison (1923) presenting at least a confirmed neurasthenic picture, a misery to herself and a nuisance to all around her, the subject of the attentions of the quack, the homeopath, the gynaecologist and even the Christian scientist. Finally the surgeon may be called in and add surgical trauma to the other factors which assist in the development of neurasthenia.

There is considerable difference in the symptomatology of chronic bacillary dysentery when seen in children as compared with the symptoms in adults. In young children chronic infections with Flexner's bacillus are not uncommon and the diagnosis usually made is one of 'mucous disease' or Still's disease. These patients become very intolerant to carbohydrates and are liable to develop tenosis with cyclic vomiting. Irregular fever is usually present and the patient tends to become pot-bellied with a capricious appetite. The stools are usually large, pale coloured and offensive.

In adults chronic infections with Flexner's bacillus are apt to lead to diarrhoea of the 'hull' diarrhoea type rather than to dysentery. Secondary infection with the *B. albifaciens* is not infrequently present leading to the production of leucobases and hence the light coloured stools as the stercobilia in the faeces is altered to a colourless base. The patient tends to pass three or four copious fluid stools in the early morning and to feel tired out for the rest of the day whilst the condition tends to be aggravated by any hot or solid food.

* * * * *

We may consider the symptomatology of chronic bacillary dysentery under several different headings for it is almost protean in its characters.

Severe Cases

These have been so admirably described by Fletcher and Jepps (1931) that in the main we may follow their description. The course in such patients is usually progressively downhill until they reach the final stage of extreme asthenia described by Norman Chevers as *morbus bengalensis*. The patient continues to pass blood and mucus for months or even years on end until eventually the stool comes to consist of little else than blood stained mucus and necrotic epithelium. Emaciation sets in and becomes extreme. The anemia deepens until cardiac insufficiency comes on accompanied by the onset of oedema. There may be periods of temporary improvement followed by relapses. The abdomen is markedly shrunken but in the terminal stages there may be ascites. The stools are usually very foul and it is usually impossible to isolate the *B. dysenteriae* from them although this is usually possible at post mortem. Death may occur from exhaustion or from intercurrent disease whilst according to Sir Leonard Rogers there may be sudden severe haemorrhage from the gut. Perforation of the gut with septic peritonitis undoubtedly does occur but is very rare.

Many such cases occur as the terminal dysentery of kala azar, pulmonary or intestinal tuberculosis or malarial cachexia. These cases require the most vigorous measures if they are to be curable and the prognosis is usually very bad.

Mild Cases and the Carrier State (a) in Indians

From what we have seen in Calcutta during the past six years it would seem that chronic mild bacillary dysentery and the carrier state are associated with a different symptomatology in Indians and in Europeans respectively. In Indians these mild infections appear to be especially associated with an asthenic diarrhoea whereas in Europeans the condition appears to be one of the most important causes of tropical neurasthenia.

In Indians this asthenic diarrhoea is associated with marked wasting. The pulse is of low tension and the patient becomes more and more deeply pigmented on account of adrenal deficiency. These cases are often mistaken for cases of intestinal tuberculosis. On passing the finger along the skin the white line of adrenal deficiency is seen. The skin becomes dry and harsh. The tongue may be red and glazed and rather like that of a spruce patient but there is no ulceration of it.

The stools tend to be numerous from 4 to 8 a day to be large pale in colour and containing much mucus. The patients show a marked intolerance as a rule to carbohydrates.

Although this condition is one which may vary widely in its degree of severity it is one which requires prompt and vigorous treatment.

Mild Cases and the Carrier State (b) in Europeans

In mild infections in Europeans—and to some extent in well to do Indians living in European style—the symptomatology appears to be quite different. Here the first and most important symptom is irregularity of the bowels. This may be associated with constipation or with constipation alternating with diarrhoea. The second and a very important sign is the invariable presence of visible mucus in the stool.

The toxins which are absorbed from the ulcerated gut at first in small doses slightly stimulate then fatigue and finally profoundly depress the various systems of the body as the toxæmia deepens.

The first effect of the toxæmia falls on the involuntary musculature of the body and especially on the gut wall. The gut tends to become atonic so that the cæcum loses its tone and becomes distended and thin walled. Gurgling in the right iliac fossa is in consequence a common symptom. If the bowels are not kept systematically open e.g. by liquid paraffin this leads to constipation alternating with periods of diarrhoea during which the overloaded cæcum is emptied. The appendicular valve becomes patent and *feces* may enter the appendix and give rise to the symptoms of appendicular colic. With irregular peristalsis setting in abdominal colic is a frequent symptom. Irregular spasmodic contractions at the hepatic or splenic flexure may give rise to sudden sharp attacks of pain in these regions which may simulate the symptoms of gall stone colic or an acute duodenal lesion.

The second effect of the toxins is to depress the tone of the involuntary muscular bands which support the intestine. The cæcum sags down into the pelvis and visceroptosis sets in affecting in turn the transverse colon, the liver, spleen and kidneys. The tone of the muscles in the genital organs is affected. In the male with the loss of tone in the prostate and seminal vesicles this may lead to loss of seminal control and nocturnal emissions.

Lastly there is loss of control of the peripheral vascular circulation. These patients tend to get chilblains in the cold weather and dermatographia and urticaria are common.

It is at this point that the surgeon and gynaecologist are frequently seen at their best in such patients. A large proportion of such patients lose their appendix. They are subjected to laparotomy for investigation to operations on bands and links, anchorage of floating kidneys, gall bladder operations and many and sundry gynaecological procedures from pessaries to shortening of the round ligaments. Such operations are wont to be unsuccessful in their results as they represent an attempt to bind up toneless ligaments and do not recognize the underlying toxæmia which is responsible for the loss of tone.

Together with the loss of tone in the gut and visceroptosis goes diminution in the secretions of the alimentary canal. Gastric secretion is diminished, with

hypochlorhydria or achlorhydria followed by atony and dilatation of the stomach. Much rarer is a condition of hyperchlorhydria with ulceration. The secretion of amylase, trypsin and invertase is lessened with indigestion to starch which causes flatulence and increases the abdominal colic. With a diminished flow of bile and the loss of its antiseptic action on the intestinal contents the stools become very offensive. The tongue is furred with an offensive taste in the mouth in the mornings.

Finally the brunt of the infection falls upon the endocrine system whose activities are lowered by two causes (a) the lack of the normal substances absorbed from the gut which are the precursors from which the endocrine glands manufacture their secretions and (b) by direct toxic action of the toxins on the glands themselves.

The thyroid appears to be the gland which is most depressed and hypothyroidism is the rule among these patients. They feel cold even in the hottest weather they sweat and flush with nervousness on the slightest stimulus. The skin becomes slightly harsh the hair dull and lifeless. There is usually loss of the outer third of the eyebrows. In the case of women they tend to become mentally vivacious when in society but dull and irritable in their own homes men tend to become morose and to shun society.

Depression of the adrenals leads to a low tension pulse and the characteristic white adrenal line can be provoked on the skin. The complexion becomes muddy sometimes with chlorismic patches. These patients easily get excited and then the adrenal glands suddenly work at high tension for a short time with a greater depression than ever afterwards. In women the cortex may sometimes be stimulated with resulting hypertrichosis.

The function of the gonads is also depressed leading in the case of women to scanty menses and painful menstruation with loss of or disinclination for sexual intercourse. In men there is loss of sexual appetite.

As the result of these various factors the patient now passes into a condition of confirmed tropical neurasthenia. He is full of morbid anxiety about himself. And here we see —

(a) First introspectiveness. The patient is really ill but without obvious or apparent cause. He seeks to find within himself the reason. He becomes bowel conscious and in consequence his intestinal symptoms become more prominent than before the indigestion and flatulence increase. He worries about his heart suffers from palpitation and fears that he has heart disease. He consults the physician about his blood pressure and the likelihood of his developing cerebral hæmorrhage. The flatulence and abdominal colic suggest to him that he has abdominal cancer. The disinclination for sexual intercourse leads him to believe that he is impotent and to worry about that.

(b) Anxiety neurosis By degrees the patient passes into a state of constant anxious and morbid dread In men the dread is often of the onset of some fatal disease though such patients want to regain their health and to live and not die In women with the development of sexual anæsthesia the sex tendency is sublimated into other paths They become extremely jealous If they have children they develop maternal anxiety and dread lest anything shall befall the child If there is no child they develop narcissism or self adoration and the wish to gratify this self adoration may lead to illicit or clandestine intercourse

(c) Phobias Finally as the result of excessive response to external stimuli the actual phobias may develop such as claustrophobia morbid fear of disease etc

(We do not mean to suggest for one moment that tropical neurasthenia is always caused by chronic bacillary dysenteric infection The latter is not the only cause but in our opinion is an important cause of tropical neurasthenia The toxins which lead to this condition may be absorbed from the teeth mouth stomach gut prostate etc whilst severe debilitating or chronic diseases of many different types may lead to a similar depression of tone of the endocrine glands)

By this time if her means will permit it the patient is probably on her way to Plombières or Harrogate If not she comes to constitute one of that terrible army of women of whom Cribbe wrote —

Who with sad prayers the weary doctor teases

To name the ever nameless new disease

My *bête noire* Miss A is coming to see you soon once wrote Dr A to Dr B of this class of patient

The Diagnosis of Chronic Bacillary Dysentery

The diagnosis of chronic bacillary dysentery is not easy It is far more difficult than that of acute bacillary dysentery and it calls for the utmost diligence and skill of the physician and the laboratory worker also not infrequently for the help of the radiologist

The first essential is a careful and thorough clinical examination of the patient and a detailed enquiry into his previous history If the patient is in the condition of chronic neurasthenia described he will often come to the physician with a small portfolio of notes temperature charts and the like It is unwise to disregard this portfolio totally for on delving into its contents one may come across information of value Careful examination of the abdomen may be required to distinguish these cases from cases of intestinal tuberculosis or abdominal carcinoma

The sigmoidoscope is especially advocated by several authors in the diagnosis of this condition It is essential to give morphia beforehand for instrumentation is painful—a point which is very characteristic of chronic bacillary dysentery The sphincter tone is poor the gut walls thickened and firm the folds narrow and scanty The surface of the mucosa is in places normal or anæmic in others hyperæmic



The first of the three pictures shows a view of the
 forest from the road. The second picture shows a view
 of the forest from the road. The third picture shows a view
 of the forest from the road.



The first of the three pictures shows a view of the
 forest from the road. The second picture shows a view
 of the forest from the road. The third picture shows a view
 of the forest from the road.



FIG. 4 From the same patient as in Fig. 3. Skiasgram 4 hours after barium meal. Patchy ulceration in the ascending colon where the barium meal has passed but has left traces of barium attached to the ulcers. Delayed evacuation of intestinal contents.

and glazed or granular in appearance—the latter appearance resembling that of the surface of the cortex of a granular kidney after the capsule has been stripped from it. There may be small ridges or polypi of spongy granular consistency. Freedom of movement of the bowel in the pelvis is diminished.

The value of radioscopic examination after a barium meal is very great in such cases both from the point of view of diagnosis and prognosis for it will give one much information as to the state of affairs in the patient's intestinal tract. After the barium meal is given photographs are taken 4, 6, 8, 10 and 12 hours later and the series is then ready for study. The first clear evidence of the disease will usually be seen in the condition of stasis and dilatation of the colon. The opening into the appendix is frequently patent and the barium will show up inside the lumen of the appendix. Visceroperitonitis is present, the cæcum may have dropped into the pelvis or even into the true pelvis or be lying partly within and partly without the pelvis. The transverse colon may be sagged down into the pelvis. The stomach may be atoned, dilated and below its normal position. The site and extent of the ulcerated portions of the gut can be gathered from the traces of barium which remain attached to the ulcers and which show up in the photographs. In front of and behind such lesions there may be marked ectropism. From a study of such a series of photographs one can gain much valuable information and indications as to treatment.

Macroscopically the stools always contain mucus. On microscopical examination of the stool the characters of the cellular exudate are nothing like as characteristic as in cases of acute bacillary dysentery and everything depends on the state of affairs in the colon. Red blood corpuscles may be present but are frequently absent. Mucus is invariably present also—in cases of chronic infection with Flexner's bacillus—mucoid casts are often seen. Desquamated columnar epithelial cells form an important element in the cellular picture while if abscesses are present in the wall of the colon the stools may be loaded with pus cells. Microphages may be present but are much less numerous than in the acute bacillary stool.

The isolation of bacillary bacilli from such a stool is often an exceedingly difficult matter and failure to isolate them by no means invalidates the diagnosis of chronic bacillary dysentery. Manson-Bahr (1922) and the late Sir Patrick Manson (1922) advocate at least five platings. The feces should be collected on the tip of a sterile swab and then thoroughly mashed in 10 c.c. of saline. The emulsion is then spread with a platinum loop on a glass cover slip using progressively small quantities of emulsion for each successive plating. In this way a satisfactory distribution of colonies is ensured with which recognition of suitable colonies becomes very easy. Fletcher and J. P. (1924) record several such cases where repeat examination of the stools finally failed to show dysentery bacilli but where culture from the contents of the mucous retractor or from the gut at post mortem yielded many colonies of dysentery bacilli. The stools may have to be

repeatedly plated before the causative organism is found. Sometimes the administration of a saline aperient before the stool is collected for plating will assist.

In cases where the stool has to be sent to a distant laboratory the use of the solution advocated by Teague and Clurman (1916) in connection with the examination of stools of cases of typhoid fever is recommended by Fletcher and Jepps. About one part of feces is emulsified in two parts of a solution of 30 per cent glycerine in sterile 0.6 per cent saline. Fletcher and Jepps record that in such emulsions Shiga's bacillus may be recovered up to 29 days later as compared with an extreme limit of 3 days in plain faeces whilst Flexner's bacillus survived up to 42 days in the glycerine emulsion as against an extreme limit of 9 days in plain faeces. In connection with a small epidemic of dysentery due to Shiga's bacillus fifty miles away from the nearest town the medical officer on the spot knew of Teague and Clurman's method and sent specimens by post emulsified in the glycerine solution. The specimens when received were 6, 7 and 8 days old respectively yet Shiga's bacillus was isolated from each of them. (It may be mentioned however that this solution rapidly destroys the vegetative forms of *Enterobacter histolytica* and is detrimental in the examination of suspected amoebic stools.) An alternative solution which has been advocated by Dudgeon (1919) and which he states to be even better than Teague and Clurman's method is to emulsify one part of the fresh feces in an equal volume of N/33 caustic soda solution. In using Teague and Clurman's solution it is important to note that the glycerine used must be free from any trace of acidity.

Secondary infections may be present in the case of patients suffering from chronic bacillary dysentery. The sufferer from this condition is no more exempt than anyone else from infection with *E. histolytica*; indeed Fletcher and Jepps suggest that possibly *E. histolytica* cannot penetrate the mucosa of the gut until the *B. dysenteriae* or other agent has caused a superficial breach of the mucosa. Secondary invasion of the ulcers may occur with other bacteria of chief importance amongst which are the *B. pyocyaneus*, *B. asiaticus*, *B. faecalis albae*, *B. mucosus capsulatus* and others a subject to which we shall return later. Where a case of chronic bacillary dysentery has improved under vaccine therapy to a certain point and then remains stationary it is often advantageous to again plate the stool and examine the cultures for secondary organisms which may have come to infect the ulcers and to prepare and use an autogenous vaccine of such organisms.

The blood agglutination reaction against Shiga's and Flexner's bacilli by the Widal technique often affords useful information. A positive agglutination at a titre of 1/50 to Shiga's bacillus may be considered diagnostic of a past or present infection with that bacillus and one of 1/160 to be diagnostic of infection with Flexner's bacillus. During recent years this test has been applied as a routine examination to all patients admitted to the Carmichael Hospital for Tropical Diseases in Calcutta no matter from what disease they were suffering and the number of

persons who give a positive agglutination at 1:160 to Flexner's bacillus—although not suffering from dysentery or diarrhoea—is very surprising. This is a still further indication of the widespread character of infections with the bacillus of Flexner in India. It is probable that quite the majority of Indian children pass through the course of an infection with this bacillus in early life.

In estimating the condition of the endocrine system the basal metabolism may be tested as a rough guide in this matter. The muddy complexion and the test for the adrenal white line will afford an indication of adrenal insufficiency. Or the activity of the adrenals may be tested by observations on the blood sugar pulse etc. after injections of adrenalin or maulin.

Prognosis

In the severe cases of intractable bacillary dysentery in debilitated patients the prognosis is very bad. Such patients as a rule follow a steadily downward path and die in a condition of extreme asthma. In the mild cases and especially in the neurasthenic type the prognosis is good provided if the medical attendant gains the confidence and co-operation of the patient. If this is not done the patient wanders from one consultant to another seeking help which is not obtained, suffering many things at the hands of many physicians and perhaps even more at the hands of surgeons and gynecologists. It is in such patients that the inverse of the *Conditum* holds good—every day and in every way I get worse and worse. These patients require an infinite amount of tact, patience and care on the part of the medical attendant.

Chronic Bacillary Dysentery—Treatment

(a) Severe Cases

In severe cases and especially in debilitated cases the patient must be put to bed and kept there until he is able to use the bed pan. Here rest to the ulcerated gut is imperative. The patient should not be starved but on the other hand he should not be sickened with a chronic milk diet. If the infection is due to the bacillus of Flexner—as is most frequently the case—there will be intolerance to carbohydrates and proteins should be made use of such as milk, meat extracts, chicken jelly etc. It is essential to keep the bowels opened regularly and a dose of liquid paraffin may be given every evening. Warmth is very important in the case of such patients and the abdomen should be warmly clad whilst a hot water bottle to the abdomen is often very comforting. Fruit is often a valuable addition to the diet and a laxative is very useful in the treatment of the condition.

The value of rectal irrigations in such cases has been much disputed. Fletcher and Jeppe (1924) consider them of but little value in the debilitated type of patient which they were called upon to treat. They may make the patient more

comfortable but they do not reach the whole of the ulcerated areas in sufficient quantity to be of use. Many of the solutions employed for injection they write appear to aggravate the inflammation which it is sought to cure. Quinine douches are commonly employed for the treatment of chronic dysentery but our experience of rectal injections of quinine in malaria has shown that they are most irritating. There is no objection to warm soothing inactive solutions if they ease pain and it is legitimate to employ irritating injections such as silver nitrate and quinine in selected cases with the object of promoting a beneficial inflammation but they should not be used (as they often are) indiscriminately for long periods.

On the other hand Manson Bahr (1920) considers such irrigations of special value in the treatment of these cases. Littworth and Wheatley (1923) have demonstrated by the aid of x rays that the entire colon and sometimes even the lower part of the ileum can be distended with an enema when it is properly given but the use of such injections is restricted in consequence of the unsatisfactory results of faulty administration.

The following details of technique for such injections are given by Manson Bahr —

The apparatus required is (a) a cylindrical glass funnel 1½ inches in diameter and graduated to hold 10 ozs of fluid (b) three feet of rubber tubing of half inch diameter which should be firmly secured to the constricted end of the glass funnel by tape (c) a bulbous glass connection for joining the rubber tubing to the rectal tube (d) a rectal tube which should consist of a stout catheter at least ¾th of an inch in diameter with a big round terminal opening.

The solution used may be any one of the following. It is far better to use bland and non irritant than irritant fluids —

Sodium chloride	4 dr to the pint of water
Sea water	
Sodium bicarbonate	4 dr to the pint of normal saline
Eusol or similar preparation	5 ozs to the pint of saline

The patient's bowels should first be well cleared by a dose of castor oil administered on the previous evening and on the morning of irrigation only the lightest breakfast should be allowed. A large enema of sodium bicarbonate 1 dr to the pint should be given half an hour before the irrigation in order to clear out the bowel. The apparatus is then fitted together securely tied and sterilized. Rubber gloves should be worn by the operator if possible in order to avoid infecting himself and the irrigating fluid should be given at a temperature of 100 to 110 F.

If the patient is sufficiently robust the knee elbow position is best but in much debilitated patients this is not advisable. The foot of the bed should be raised slightly to facilitate the flow of fluid. In severely debilitated

patients it is best to place the patient on a waterproof sheet with the buttocks well padded with tow or wool. The rectal tube is well greased with vasoline the apparatus filled with the irrigating fluid and the tubing constructed whilst the rectal tube is gently inserted for a distance of about 3 inches. The rectal tube should not be inserted for a further distance as it may kink or even cause perforation of the ulcerated gut and the so called high rectal tube is useless. The funnel is now raised to about one foot above the anus and the fluid run in at the rate of about one inch level per minute by alternately raising and lowering the funnel for a distance of about two feet. The patient should be encouraged to retain the fluid for as long as he can. Lateral pressure on the buttocks aids in the retention of the fluid especially when the patient feels that he has taken all that he can manage. The injections may be given daily or on alternate days.

Intestinal antiseptics do not appear to be of much value in these severe cases but salol and pulv. op. cac. may be given by the mouth. Serum treatment is useless. If vaccine treatment is adopted it is necessary to proceed with extreme caution since too large a dose may cause the whole condition to flare up. The initial dose with a vaccine of Shiga's bacillus should not exceed a dose of 5 million and with Flexner's bacillus a dose of 10 million. The treatment of secondary infections of the gut is often important.

In general the treatment of these severe cases consists in adequate nursing and seeing that the patient has a sufficiently nourishing diet with adequate vitamins. Cecostomy followed by daily irrigation of the entire colon with warm boracic solution may be of value in the treatment of such patients as are not too debilitated to stand the shock of operation.

(6) Mild Cases and Carriers

The first thing, if possible is to get the patient into hospital and put to bed. This will give rest to the ulcerated colon and afford opportunities of obtaining fresh material for laboratory examination sigmoidoscopy, x-ray meal and radiography etc. It is a mistake to try and treat these cases out patients as one wants them under full control and observation. With regard to diet two things are important that the patient should not be starved and that he should not get sick to death if mild. In Flexner's bacillus infection the patient should be kept on a more or less protein diet.

Nursing is important a careful recording of the temperature, reporting the number and character of the stools, seeing that the patient avoids chill's and gets adequate nutrition. Patient nurse and doctor should work together harmoniously and with confidence in each other.

Serum treatment in these cases is useless but bacteriophage treatment may prove very valuable. A dose of 1 cc. is given on an empty stomach every day.

for three days. Some of our cases have done very well on this treatment but it seems to be very important to secure a potent and selected brew of bacteriophage.

Vaccine therapy is especially indicated in these cases. In the case of a Shiga bacillus infection it is very necessary to go cautiously an initial dose of only 5 million organisms should be given and the dose gradually raised to 50 million or so. In Flexner bacillus infections the initial dose may be 10 million organisms and the patient may be gradually worked up to 100 to 150 million. The injections should be given twice a week or so and intradermally not subcutaneously. Reaction will be shown on the temperature chart and in the character of the stools. If there is a sharp febrile reaction or an attack of diarrhoea following after the injection this is an indication that the dose of vaccine is probably too high and it should be reduced or the same dose be repeated at the next injection.

As adjuncts to this line of treatment iodine may first be mentioned. In many of these chronic intestinal conditions there is a deficiency in the iodine intake and hence a condition of hypothyroidism. It may be given either intravenously, in doses of 3 to 8 minims of the tincture well diluted with saline or by the mouth 5 minims in a little milk. Scott's method of calcium and parathyroid treatment is very useful for some of these cases which are probably associated with parathyroid deficiency. It consists in giving parathyroid extract gr $\frac{1}{16}$ twice a day and cachets of calcium lactate 15 to 20 grains three times a day after food. This treatment is especially appropriate if there is any indication of gastric or duodenal lesions as complications.

The condition of the bowels must be kept regular. If necessary a dose of liquid paraffin may be given every evening. To combat stasis a well fitting abdominal belt may be necessary and often gives the patient great comfort. Abdominal massage along the direction of the colon will often do far more for the patient's recovery than any surgical interference.

In the neurasthenic type of case endocrine therapy is indicated to combat the endocrine insufficiency. Desiccated thyroid gland should be given in very small doses gr $\frac{1}{16}$ to gr $\frac{1}{8}$ on an empty stomach twice a day. In administering adrenalin and pituitrin it is best to begin by giving these drugs hypodermically so that one gets the patient under their full influence before changing to oral administration. A daily hypodermic injection of 0.2 c.c. of 1:1000 liquor adrenalin with 0.5 c.c. of liquor pituitrin may be given daily for three days. A change is then made to oral administration and gr $\frac{1}{8}$ to gr $\frac{1}{4}$ of suprarenal extract with gr $\frac{1}{4}$ to gr $\frac{1}{2}$ of post pituitary extract is added to the prescription of thyroid extract and given twice daily. It may also prove advisable to add gr 2 of gonad extract to the above prescription. The practitioner should remember that all these endocrine preparations are very hygroscopic that they contain much

protein and are liable to decompose on storage and in wet weather. The endocrine treatment should be continued for from 3 to 6 weeks.

Alcohol as a rule is contra indicated but if the patient is restless and sleepless bromides or other sedatives may prove useful.

To sum up the successful treatment of these cases entirely depends upon making a most careful assessment of the conditions and factors present and in securing the confidence and co-operation of the patient. It is surprising how well many of these neurasthenic patients do under such conditions.

CHAPTER VII

Chronic Amœbiasis and the *Entamœba histolytica* Carrier

At one time it was thought that *Entamœba histolytica* caused amœbic dysentery and hepatic abscess and nothing else. The carrier condition was supposed to be an instance of almost perfect symbiosis between parasite and host: the carrier showed no symptoms but was chiefly a danger to others. Since the Great War however and within recent years our views of the carrier condition have been considerably modified and we now regard intestinal infection with *E. histolytica* as being usually associated with symptoms of amœbic colitis and amœbic dysentery and amœbic hepatitis is uncommon complication of amœbic colitis. The carrier may show either constipation or irregularity of the bowels: he is a potential danger to himself and to others: secondary organisms may invade his blood stream through the ulcers produced in his gut whilst the entamœbas themselves may get into his liver and set up anything varying from a mild hepatitis to acute liver abscess.

It may be asked whether *E. histolytica* is by itself capable of invading the uninjured mucosa of the colon. During the last few years a certain amount of evidence has been brought forward to show that this parasite may occasionally live free in the lumen of the gut (where it possibly feeds upon bacteria) without invading the mucosa. The work of Sellards and Leiva (1923a) which has already been commented on shows that intestinal stasis together with a fluid condition of the contents of the colon may be important contributory factors to the invasion of the gut. It is possible that *E. histolytica* can only invade the mucous membrane of the colon in the presence of intestinal stasis and where some other organism—such as the *Bacillus dysenteriae*, the pyradysentery bacilli or even *Trichuris trichiura*—has already caused a breach in the continuity of the mucosa.

The degree of ulceration in the carrier state varies very much and with it the degree of intensity of the intestinal symptoms. There is a curious idea which is still very prevalent that a *histolytica* carrier is a person who is carrying the cysts of *E. histolytica* in his intestine such a person often being erroneously referred to as a cyst carrier. As Dobell and O'Connor (1921) point out this confusion of thought is as illogical as it would be to consider a person infected with hookworms as an egg carrier. The patient infected with hookworms passes their ova in his



FIG 3. Angio-In h n m l 23 v m t h m
 l y n t r y t h k n l i l i n n o f y o a m t
 l j l j n n l f e n t h l r c h f m n t
 h o m l f s l f r m f r a m f m d u t l a d h m m
 a n l h o m l C h a r t L e j j l o l m j z z l d l o p
 h d o f o e p r e s e n t y d y c r y f f j j f r e p a t d
 e u f m s o j l m n l i o a w o n
 s l g r a m f h o u s a f r a i n m z z l e h h o r t
 at the h p o t o f k u r o



FIG 4. Amob is with se to symphonist y
 after a l a n u m l e h w i n g g r o u p l m a b n a l d e c o r a n
 s p e a d y f e h t e r p a t i o f o r u n
 (s i l e r v h o r n o j y 4)



FIG. 7. Slight amoebic infection with light symptomatology and no history of dysentery. Slight patchy ulceration of caecum and hepatic flexure. Appendix patent.
(After Vallance 1924)

stools similarly the histolytica carrier has active motile vegetative *F. histolytica* living in and at the expense of the mucous membrane of his colon and from these vegetative forms are derived the cysts which are passed in his formed stools. Should such a person contract bacillary dysentery or diarrhoea due to non amœbic cause he may commence to pass scanty motile vegetative forms of *F. histolytica* in his stools a source of considerable confusion to the inexperienced laboratory worker. Finally should the local resistance of such a carrier be unduly reduced from extraneous causes he may go down with an attack of true amœbic dysentery.

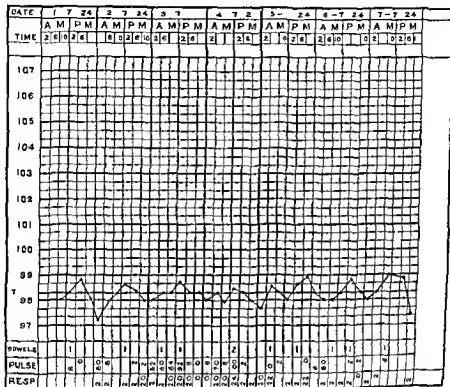
The degree of ulceration of the colon mucosa in the carrier state varies very considerably but it is surprising how extensive it can be in the absence of symptoms. Muirgrave (1910) and Earle (1917) record quite extensive ulceration of the colon unaccompanied by symptoms. Armitage (1919) records a very interesting case of a patient who had never had any symptoms of dysentery but was a contact carrier of *F. histolytica* he acquired a typical liver abscess and when this was cured an amœbic abscess of the brain developed from which he died. During the war in Mesopotamia six biscuits were accidentally suffocated in the bottom of a barge where they had lit a fire and closed the hatches before going to sleep. On post mortem examination one of the men showed two small ulcers in the cæcum each about the size of a round four anna bit with numerous *E. histolytica* present in the fecal contents and also in nests in the submucous tissue of the cæcal wall as seen in sections. A second showed a small ulcer in the region of the splenic flexure with cysts of *F. histolytica* in the gut contents and vegetative forms present in sections of the gut wall. Both these men were on the active list they had not recently been in hospital and would have been classified as being in ordinary good health. A case is recorded in the war literature of an officer who was on the active list and suddenly died from perforation of the cæcum. At autopsy amœbic infection was found to be the cause. The reason for the usual absence of definite intestinal symptoms in the carrier state is probably because the ulcers are usually limited to the cæcum and the ascending colon.

Signs and Symptoms of the Carrier State

Clinically we are wont to recognize two well marked types of *F. histolytica* carriers the first the lean thin-sometimes cadaverous individual with a muddy complexion and usually recurrent. His food assimilation is inadequate he tends to be faddy and irritable he is vaguely ill without knowing what is wrong with him he is habitually constipated and always taking drugs to cure the constipation. The second type is the fat and jovial bon vivier who is apt to suffer from rather chronic morning diarrhoea especially if he has had a short drink or two at the club the previous evening apt to get a little fever and occasionally to feel vague pains in his liver.

Together with minor ulceration of the colon mucosa goes a train of ill defined symptoms the elements of which may be presented as follows —

(a) *Irregularity in the state of the bowels* The *E histolytica* carrier has usually marked irregularity in the state of the bowels. Marked constipation may be a symptom so that purgatives may have to be taken daily. This is especially seen in the adult European female where a previous attack of amœbic dysentery has been followed by visceroptosis. On the other hand there may be constipation for two or three days followed by a morning of diarrhoea with frequent stools the lower



Lily E. European f. male F. A. stool to carrier. All other examinations for any other possible cause of fever gave negative finding.

down the colon the greater the tendency to looseness of the bowels. Some patients may have two or three stools every morning often with adherent mucus on them and then be comfortable for the rest of the day.

(b) *Pain* usually described as vague and colicky and not infrequently setting in half an hour or so after meals. This may be associated with lesions of and sometimes adhesions in the hepatic and splenic flexures whilst hyperchlorhydria may sometimes be present.

(c) *Fever* of a low, erratic and irregular type often not perceived by the patient and only to be detected by taking a four hourly temperature chart the temperature showing occasional rises to 99 or 99.6 F. sometimes with a daily rise suggestive of early amoebic hepatitis but without any localizing symptoms in the liver. The temperature chart shown above is such an instance. It is of a European female patient aged 17 who was a carrier of *E. histolytica* where all attempts to find any other cause for the low fever failed but where combined bismuth and emetine treatment cured the fever. The fever is often associated with considerable lassitude coming on in the evening.

If we are to understand the aetiology of these symptoms it must be remembered that the ulcerations are usually situated in the cæcum and ascending colon sometimes at the hepatic flexure more rarely in the splenic flexure and most rarely of all in the pelvic colon and rectum. When a peristaltic wave starts it is often blocked at these ulcerated sites with the result that the intestinal contents are dammed back into the cæcum which becomes full and is frequently easily palpable with a good deal of gurgling. If this condition is not relieved the cæcum becomes enormously distended and empties every second to fourth day with a sharp attack of diarrhoea. The intestinal stasis leads to the production of such putrefactive end products as indol and skatol and these may be found in excess in the urine. Absorption of these toxins from the gut lead to —

(1) A condition of chronic indigestion as the toxins cause pyloric spasm (which is frequently very well seen in skintograms of such cases) and hypochlorhydria. These cases are frequently mistaken for duodenal or gastric ulcers and not infrequently operated on without relief of the symptoms. Sometimes however the gastric functions are depressed and hypochlorhydria is present.

(2) Depression of the general metabolic functions the patient becoming lack-lustre, irritable and frequently neurasthenic.

(3) Stimulation of the blood vessels and involuntary muscles with the onset of such symptoms as a thyma, urticaria, giant urticaria etc. (We do not cling for a moment that these conditions are always due to *E. histolytica* infection but in many such patients examination of the stools will show the carrier condition to be present and emetine treatment will clear up the a thyma or urticaria.)

With the cæcal stasis there is very apt to be a patent appendix containing faecal matter the mucous membrane of which may from time to time be catarrhally inflamed. Many of these patients however shew the signs of an appendicectomy operation but complain that the operation has not cured their symptoms.

In the stout jovial type of carrier intestinal stasis is much less marked but signs of active disease are rather more pronounced. He will have two or three loose stools each morning and a certain grade of fever up to 99.6 F. towards evening. It is particularly in this type of case that there is danger of embolism either of

E. histolytica into the portal circulation or of streptococci into the general circulation

These patients appear to run a more definite risk of liver abscess than do the other type

With ulceration present in the gut it is obvious that embolism may occur. This may be of different types—

(1) *Amœbic showers* We do not think that the medical profession in this country has as yet properly appreciated the frequency of a low grade of hepatitis due to *E. histolytica* infection in the carrier state. It is probable that in most *E. histolytica* carriers amœbæ from time to time make their way into the portal blood stream and get into the liver. Clark (1924) records that at post mortem examination of 186 persons who had died from amœbic dysentery 95 persons—or 51 per cent—showed major or minor amœbic lesions of the liver. Solitary abscesses were present in 40 patients and multiple abscesses in 55. Sir Leonard Rogers (1925) found that the incidence of cirrhosis of the liver in 1 600 autopsies held in Calcutta was 5.91 per cent as against a corresponding figure of 1.3 per cent for 1 000 post mortems held in London. After a full discussion of the possible causes for this large excess in the Bengal figures he concludes that it is mainly due either to direct infection of the liver with *E. histolytica* and chronic irritation or else to the absorption of poisonous principles from the gut in cases of amœbic ulceration of the colon. It is probable indeed that in the majority of persons suffering from *E. histolytica* infection of the colon repeated small infections of the liver occur. Usually these are not attended by any symptoms, sometimes there may be a mild grade of hepatitis associated with low fever but not with abscess formation, more rarely there is actual liver abscess.

(2) *Streptococcal showers* Streptococci are normally present in the contents of the colon but are of non-hemolytic type. If the stool of a healthy carrier be plated on Conradi Drigalski medium their colonies can be isolated as very minute translucent dew drop like colonies. Every one of the sweepers at the Calcutta School of Tropical Medicine is a healthy carrier of *E. histolytica* and in none of them have we been able to isolate hemolytic streptococci though non-hemolytic strains are frequently present. On the other hand if the stool of a carrier with vague symptoms be plated hemolytic strains of streptococci—corresponding to the *Streptococcus anginosus* of Andrews—are frequently isolated. These may escape from the ulcerated gut through the ulcers into the blood stream and cause various types of lesions. Thus there may be brachial or sciatic neuritis, myositis such as lumbago or wry neck, monoarticular synovitis or even multiple synovitis of several small joints such as those of the hand whilst—very exceptionally—they may produce duodenal ulcer. If the modern view of the production of duodenal ulcer be accepted that it is due to toxic or bacterial embolism from some focus such as burns or a septic dental socket then we must realise that chronic amœbic

ulceration of the colon may also—though very rarely—give rise to it. These streptococcal infections of the blood stream may produce a fairly severe grade of anaemia. The streptococci can only very rarely be isolated on blood culture since their presence in the blood stream is intermittent and they are very scanty. They are excreted by the kidney however and may set up a pyelitis or give rise to inflammation which ends in calculus formation.

The best way to isolate these streptococci is to take a 25 c.c. specimen of urine from the patient by catheter direct into a small sterile flask. The flask itself is then placed for 24 hours in the warm incubator. Next day the growth of streptococci will be found as tiny wisps or flocculent balls and can be subcultured on blood agar to test whether it is a hemolytic strain or not.

(3) To complete the picture we must add that *streptothrix* infection of the blood stream may occur though it is very rare. The species present is generally the *Discomyces asteroides* of Eppinger and it causes a portal pyemia or—more rarely—a cerebral abscess.

A condition which is not infrequently associated with chronic intestinal amœbiasis is leucoderma. In these cases it would seem that with the change in the bacterial flora of the gut associated with the amœbic infection the precursors from which the melanin of the body is ultimately produced are absent and hence leucoderma results. In all cases of leucoderma it is important to examine the stools for *E. histolytica* infection since if it is found and treated this may lead to cure of the leucodermic state.

Finally owing to his lowered state of general resistance the chronic *E. histolytica* carrier is more liable than is the healthy individual to the onset of intercurrent disease such as bacillary dysentery, kala-azar, cholera, etc.

The Diagnosis of the Carrier State

In addition to a careful record of the patient's history and symptoms abdominal examination should be carried out. In many of these cases the cæcum and ascending colon or sometimes the sigmoid flexure will be found to be thickened and definitely palpable.

The sigmoidoscope is not as useful in the chronic amœbic carrier state as in subacute and especially chronic and relapsing amœbic dysentery since the ulceration usually affects the upper part of the colon. A few small sea anemone-like ulcers with white or yellow sloughs attached to their bases may be found sometimes however.

Radioscopy is of special value in these cases both from the point of view of diagnosis and of getting information as to the extent of the lesions and the portions of the colon affected. An excellent account of the radiographical findings in such cases is that given by Vallurino (1921). He points out that a series of photographs taken after a barium meal are better than photographs taken after administration

of a large enema of barium salt as under the latter circumstances the fluid is forced against the direction of peristalsis and abnormal appearances may result whereas after the barium meal the barium fills the lumen of the gut naturally and remains in any small pockets of ulceration. The whole of the colon should be photographed in a series of photographs taken 12 18 24 and 30 hours after the barium meal. He records finding defects in all cases of amoebic infection associated with definite symptoms. The bowel loses its normal contour in the part affected and a mottled area is found instead the extent of the mottling depending on the degree of ulceration present. The majority of the lesions were found in the cæcum and ascending colon next in frequency in the sigmoid flexure, less often in the transverse and descending colon. The lesions in the carrier state are often minimal consisting of small scattered patches of defect in the cæcum and ascending colon in which the barium lodges and remains after the rest of the meal has passed on.

Laboratory Diagnosis

Here in the first place it is of the utmost importance that the stools shall be as fresh as possible for the cysts of *F. histolytica* commence to degenerate in the passed faeces and with the exception of a proportion of the mature cysts may all have degenerated within a few hours and be no longer recognizable.

The macroscopic character of the stool will vary with the intestinal state of the patient but in all cases there is visible mucus. In the lean type of carrier the stool is usually a hard formed one with streaks of mucus over the scybalous masses. In this case the mucus should be examined and the fecal matter near it. The findings here usually will be both large and small cysts of *E. histolytica* and Charcot Leyden crystals but on plating streptococci are not found as a rule. In the other the stout type of carrier the stool is frequently a mucoid and diarrhoeic one. Here one will usually find a few pre cystic or even small motile vegetative forms of *F. histolytica* cysts at all stages of development and generally of small size and Charcot Leyden crystals. In these cases streptococci are usually numerous and are frequently of hæmolytic type.

The laboratory worker should never be content with a single negative finding. Emulsions must be made in both saline and iodine for in the former the characteristic chromatoid bars of the cyst of *E. histolytica* are unmistakable and in the latter nuclear detail stands out. The examination of stools for the cysts of *F. histolytica* is not easy and the more experienced the laboratory worker the more difficult he recognizes such a procedure to be. The mere presence of entamoeba or of entamoebic cysts of any type in the stool does not constitute evidence of *F. histolytica* infection it is necessary to be certain that the entamoeba or cysts are those of *F. histolytica*. And to the laboratory worker who is still uncertain as to the identification of the cyst of *F. histolytica* we would recommend two procedures the first the careful study of Dobell and O'Connor's *Intestinal Protozoa of Man*



FIG 98. Amoebic dysentery. Thinning of balloon of test n lwalat post marked X in d weni gelin. The black lingsha has been scraped w y from th two lcers marked S, showing th yell w base.
(Alt. Flitche and J pp 104)

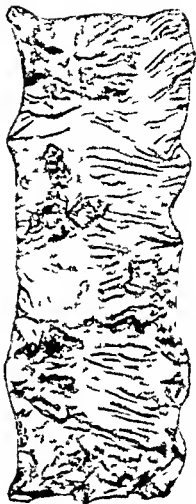


FIG 99. Chronic amoebic dysentery of 1 1/2 yrs duration. Showing chronic ulceration. *E. histolytica* was found in scrapings from the ulcers. No dysentery has been noticed. There was great thickening of the test n in places, and the appendices p.p.o. were much enlarged.
(Alt. Flitche and J pp 104)

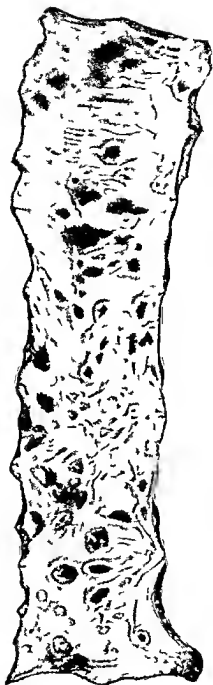


FIG 30 Amoebic dysentery Healing ulcers in the rectum.
(After Fletcher and Jepps 194)

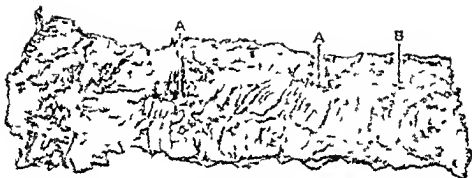


FIG. 31 Mixed bacillary and amoebic dysentery. Descending colon showing several dark amoebic ulcers (marked A) and bacillary ulcers (marked B). History of repeated attacks of dysentery. The ascending colon was much thickened and contained numerous ulcers of the amoebic kind while there was bacillary attack with descending colon and rectum. There was a large amoebic abscess in the right half of the ileum. *Bacillus dysenteriae* Fl. & R. was cultivated from the stool in *Fat-marsh* & *typhosa* and in the ileum the following day. (After Fletcher and Jepps, 1914.)

and the second the repeated and careful examination of the stools of sweepers in which sooner or later typical cysts of all the four common intestinal entamoebæ of man will be encountered. The study of such material is an education in itself.

A good way of preparing the iodine emulsion for study in such cases is to grind up a portion of the stool in the iodine solution with a pestle and mortar and then to centrifuge the emulsion so made. The supernatant fluid is then thrown away and a tiny particle of the deposit picked up in a capillary pipette and emulsified in a small drop of saline on the slide then covered with a cover slip. By this method the cysts stand out very clearly stained with iodine against a colourless background.

The Cyst of Entamoeba histolytica

The pre cyst of *E. histolytica* is smaller than either the vegetative or the encysted forms thus constituting the minute phase of the parasite's life history (Fig 14). The amoeba in the lumen of the gut is considerably smaller than the vegetative form in the tissues and this Dobell ascribes to a probable reduction in size by division. The amoeba rounds up and becomes motionless with drawing all its pseudopodia into the body. All ingested red blood corpuscles are thrown out whilst the nucleus becomes large relatively to the size of the body. At this stage it is very difficult to distinguish the pre cyst of *E. histolytica* from the pre cyst of *E. coli*.

In the pre cyst of *E. histolytica* however the nucleus remains true to its histolytica characters: it is invisible in saline and when stained with iodine or in an iron hæmatoxylin preparation shows the fine central karyosome and the thin deposit of chromatin on the inner aspect of the nuclear membrane.

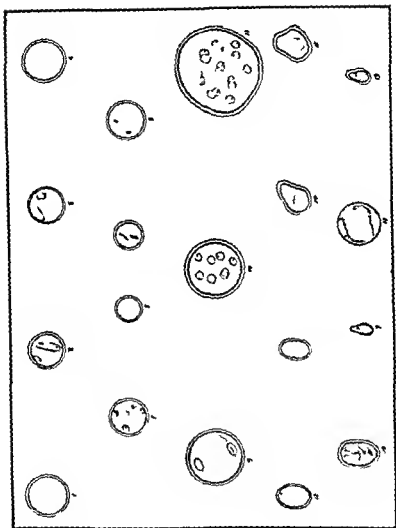
A cyst wall is next secreted which is definitely thinner than that of *E. coli*. The nucleus is at first single and its diameter measures about one third of that of the cyst. The most characteristic feature of the cyst of *E. histolytica* next appears, i.e. the laying down in the cytoplasm of chromatoid substance. According to Mahna Smith (1918) chromatoid substance is present in 25 per cent of the cysts of *E. histolytica* but Dobell (1919 p. 48) regards this as a serious underestimate and considers that possibly a majority of cysts of *E. histolytica* contain chromatoid substance. The chromatoid substance is not fine feathery and like splintered glass as in the cyst of *E. coli* but massive. It is laid down in the form of large rods, bars, chunks and masses. Its visibility in saline varies considerably. Sometimes the chromatoid bars are so brightly refractile and stand out with such very great prominence that they are the most brilliant feature of the cyst when seen in saline. Sometimes however they are less refractile and less conspicuous. In iodine the chromatoid substance does not show up at all: there is a palish area where the chromatoid bars lie less deeply stained than is the rest of the cyst. In iron hæmatoxylin the chromatoid substance stains an intense jet black.

The amount of glycogen present in the cyst of *E. histolytica* varies but there is never the enormous glycogen vacuole so characteristic of the binucleate phase

PLATE IV

- Cysts of the chief intestinal protozoa of man as seen in a saline emulsion of the stool
- | | | |
|------|-----------|---|
| Figs | 1 to 6 | Cysts of <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> |
| Fig | 1 | Mono-nucleate cyst with small glycogen vacuole |
| " | 2 | Mono-nucleate cyst showing two chromatoid bars and a glycogen vacuole |
| " | 3 | Tetra nucleate cyst showing two chromatoid bars |
| " | 4 | Tetra nucleate cyst in phase of early degeneration with chromatoid substance not visible |
| " | 5 | Minuta type of cyst with small glycogen vacuole |
| " | 6 | Minuta type of cyst with two chromatoid bars |
| Figs | 7 and 8 | Degenerated cysts in a stale stool showing progressive vacuolation of the cytoplasm and breaking up of the nucleus and chromatoid substance |
| | 9 to 11 | Cysts of <i>Entamoeba coli</i> |
| Fig | 9 | Typical cyst at the bi nucleate phase showing the enormous glycogen vacuole |
| | 10 | Typical mature 8 nucleate cyst Nuclei at different levels within the cyst |
| | 11 | Giant and aberrant type of cyst of irregular shape with 16 nuclei These constitute a rare finding |
| Figs | 12 and 13 | Cysts of <i>Endolimax nana</i> Note their thin cyst wall and the refractile volutin granules |
| | 14 and 15 | Cysts of <i>Iodamoeba butschlii</i> Note the thick cyst wall irregular shape dull grey glycogen vacuole and refractile volutin granules |
| Fig | 16 | Cyst of <i>Giardia intestinalis</i> at 4 nucleate phase |
| | 17 | Pear shaped large yeast for comparison |
| | 18 | <i>Blastocystis hominis</i> for comparison |
| | 19 | Cyst of <i>Chilomastix mesnili</i> |

Figure 11



of the cyst of *E. coli*. In the mono nucleate phase the cyst of *E. histolytica* may show a small glycogen vacuole more commonly perhaps the glycogen is diffuse and stains as a diffuse brown area within the cyst in iodine. Glycogen can hardly be regarded as characteristic of the cyst of *E. histolytica*.

The nucleus next divides into two and then into four nuclei and the cyst becomes mature (fig. 14). As it does so the amount of glycogen seems to diminish and little or none is seen at the adult tetra nucleate phase.

The adult cyst is a very characteristic structure. It has a smooth thin cyst wall and is usually spherical—sometimes a little oval—in shape. The large and massive chromatoid bars are its most distinguishing features and they often stand out with very great prominence in saline. The nuclei are invisible in the saline preparation but are well seen in the iodine preparation and remain true to *histolytica* type with fine central karyosome and thin peripheral deposit of chromatin on the nuclear membrane.

When seen in iodine the cyst tends to have a smooth hyaline look which is in marked contrast to the headed or granular appearance of the cyst of *E. coli*. Further in the iodine preparation the contents of the cyst often appear as if confused so to speak owing to the pale areas where the chromatoid substance is alternating with the more deeply staining other portions of the cyst.

With regard to variations a definite glycogen vacuole of small size is sometimes seen but usually only at the mono nucleate phase. It is to be noted that the chromatoid substance disappears gradually from the cyst after it has left the body and not infrequently one encounters cysts which appear to have no chromatoid substance at all. Such cysts when seen in saline are often difficult to identify since they show no structure within the cyst wall. In the iodine preparation of the same stool however the nuclei show up well.

Several authors have claimed that in the cyst of *E. histolytica* nuclear division sometimes overshoots the mark and a cyst with 8 nuclei is formed. This however must be very exceptional. Dobell says that he has never encountered an 8-nucleate cyst of *E. histolytica* whilst the writers also have never come across such a finding in man.

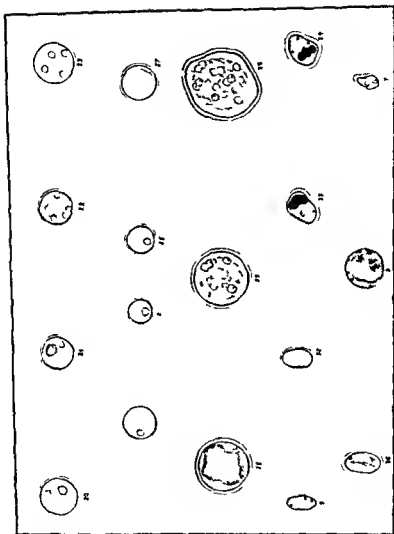
With regard to size Dobell recognizes at least four different races of *E. histolytica* with cysts whose mean diameters are 6.6μ , 8.3μ , 11.6μ and 13μ to 15μ . It is important to note that the cyst of *E. histolytica* may be very small indeed it is frequently as small as 6μ in diameter and may even be as small as 5μ in diameter. The cyst findings in the stool in the case of an infection with *E. histolytica* are more varied than in the corresponding case of an *E. coli* infection and in a formed stool one encounters cysts at all phases mono bi and tetra nucleate. Only some 53 per cent of cysts seen in the formed stool are at the mature tetra nucleate stage.

PLATE V

Cysts of the chief intestinal protozoa of man as seen in an iodine emulsion of the stool.

(The same cysts as in Plate IV)

- | | | |
|------|-----------|--|
| Figs | 20 to 27 | Cysts of <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> |
| Fig | 20 | Mono-nucleate cyst with glycogen vacuole |
| | 21 | Mono-nucleate cyst with glycogen vacuole and faintly showing chromatoid bars |
| | 22 | Mature tetra nucleate cyst with two chromatoid bars |
| | 23 | Mature cyst in stale stool chromatoid substance used up |
| | 24 | Minuta type of cyst at mono-nucleate phase |
| | 25 | Minuta type of cyst with two faintly showing chromatoid bars |
| Figs | 26 and 27 | Degenerating cysts with progressive vacuolation of the cytoplasm and nuclear fragmentation |
| | 28 to 30 | Cysts of <i>Entamoeba coli</i> |
| Fig | 28 | Typical cyst at the binucleate phase with an enormous glycogen vacuole |
| | 29 | Typical mature 8 nucleate cyst |
| | 30 | Giant and aberrant cyst with 16 nuclei |
| Figs | 31 and 32 | Cysts of <i>Endolimax nana</i> |
| | 33 and 34 | Cysts of <i>Iodamoeba butschlii</i> Note the very deeply staining glycogen vacuole |
| Fig | 35 | Cyst of <i>Giardia intestinalis</i> at 4 nucleate phase |
| | 36 | <i>Blastocystis hominis</i> for comparison |
| | 37 | Cyst of <i>Chilomastix mesnili</i> |



* The cysts of *E. histolytica* with the exception of some 50 per cent or so perhaps of mature tetra nucleate cysts degenerate slowly in the passed stool (Fig 14). The nucleus breaks up and now becomes visible in saline as a distorted ring of brightly refractile chromatin beads. The chromatoid bars disintegrate and any glycogen present becomes more and more diffuse and progressively less in amount. Vacuoles of a spherical type appear in the cytoplasm of the cyst become larger and larger and fuse together. Ultimately we are left with little more than the thin cyst wall as a capsule containing an almost empty space within which lie a few remnants of the cytoplasm and chromatinic dots. Such degenerated cysts are very frequent in stale stools and it is almost impossible to diagnose them the writers have frequently known them to be mistaken for *Blastocystis hominis*.

Mature cysts of *E. histolytica* however are relatively resistant. They will survive for several weeks outside the body of man if kept moist and cool. They will live for weeks in damp faeces or water without showing any conspicuous change except the loss of their chromatoid substance. Dobell states that the number of viable cysts in such a preparation steadily diminishes after a fortnight only a few isolated survivors are present but exceptionally some cysts may survive for five weeks. They are susceptible to heat and if kept at body temperature die within a few days whilst desiccation also rapidly kills them. The wall of the dead cyst becomes permeable to watery stains and hence the use of the 1 per cent eosin test for viability of the cysts those which are still viable not taking the stain whereas the dead ones do.

The tyro in stool examination is usually content to merely look for cysts the more experienced worker knows how difficult the diagnosis of species may be the worker who has had considerable experience begins to appreciate the difficulties which are encountered with aberrant forms and degenerated cysts. A thin emulsion which will allow of clear definition a good lens and patience are the three chief prerequisites for accuracy and the laboratory worker who has not examined more than 1000 stools is still a tyro at identification. The chromatoid bars are the most characteristic feature of the cyst of *E. histolytica* but they rapidly break down in the cysts in passed faeces. As pointed out by Yorke and Alving (1926) during the early mono nucleate phase of the cyst the amount of glycogen present may be fairly considerable but as the cyst matures the glycogen is used up and there is little or none in the mature tetra nucleate cyst. On the other hand as the cyst matures the chromatoid substance becomes more and more prominent and it is probable that all mature tetra nucleate cysts contain chromatoid substance. When the cyst is passed in the faeces however the chromatoid substance immediately starts to disintegrate and is the first structure to disappear within the cyst hence in a stool which is a little stale the cysts may fail to show chromatoid substance. In such cases one has to rely on the invisibility of the nucleus in saline and their

typical 'histolytica' type of structure as seen in the iodine preparation for identification

One final point may be noted. If a stool shows numerous entamoebic cysts almost all of which are tetra nucleate, the infection present is either one with *E. histolytica* or with *E. nana* since the tetra nucleate phase of the cyst of *E. coli* is the rarest phase of this parasite encountered. The cyst of *Endolimax nana* is readily identified by (a) its usual presence in very great numbers in the stool (b) its oval to circular shape and small size although many cysts of *minuta* type of *E. histolytica* may be as small in diameter (c) its bright volutin granules which are usually prominent and (d) its faintly greenish tinge in iodine as compared with the smooth hyaline brown appearance of the cyst of *E. histolytica*.

The presence of Charcot Leyden crystals in the stool is an added factor in diagnosis. These have already been described on p. 52 and need here be no further commented on. Further search of the same stool or of more stools from the same patient will almost always show the presence of *E. histolytica* infection in such cases.

It only remains to add that the diagnosis of *E. histolytica* carriers from material sent through the post is an easy matter. The medical attendant should make a fine emulsion of a small and typical portion of the stool in a large volume of the iodine solution mentioned with a pestle and mortar. This emulsion is then poured into a glass specimen tube which is tightly corked the cork being luted with wax. The tube is then suitably packed and sent by post. On receipt in the laboratory the emulsion is centrifuged and the deposit examined for cysts of *E. histolytica*. The cysts are well preserved in such an emulsion and can be identified as long as two weeks later.

Cultural Examination of the Stool

Even if *E. histolytica* in its vegetative or encysted form be found the laboratory worker's duty is by no means over. It should be an invariable rule that every stool examined should be plated. We are accustomed to make two cultures from every stool (a) for dysentery bacilli on a plate of McConkey's medium and (b) for streptococci on Conrad's Drigalski medium. If this be done as a routine the importance of mixed infections will come to be realized. The routine method of examination for *B. dysenteriae* has already been dealt with but we may here deal with (b).

The Isolation of Streptococci from the Stool

The culture medium used is a Conrad Drigalski one which is prepared as follows —

Nutrose	1 gm (or Casein 1 gm)
Agar	2 gms
Broth	100 c c

Autoclave for half an hour for melting and then filter to clear. Then to every litre add 1 c.c. of a 10 per cent solution of sodium carbonate 15 per cent lactose 1 c.c. of crystal violet solution (strength 0.1 per cent) and 10 c.c. of Fuchmann's litmus solution.

Sterilize in the Arnold sterilizer for ten minutes on two successive days. The medium is used in Petri dishes in the same way as McConkey's medium the plates being streaked in the same manner.

Streptococcal colonies on this medium show up as very fine tiny dew drop like growths and may be either lactose fermenters or non lactose fermenters. The colonies should be subcultured on blood agar to test whether the strain is haemolytic or not. Vaccines can then be prepared from the haemolytic strains.

An alternative method of securing haemolytic streptococci from such a patient is to incubate a catheter specimen of the urine as described above.

The concomitant streptococci which are so frequently present in the urine of the *E. histolytica* carrier probably lead to an alteration in the pH of the medium in which the entamoebae lie as most of them are lactose fermenters and produce lactic acid. This acidity favours the growth of vegetative *E. histolytica* and also hinders the action of emetine which is required in a very much stronger solution to be effective in an acid environment than in an alkaline one.

The whole bacterial flora of the gut in fact seems to be changed in the presence of *E. histolytica* infection. On a McConkey plate the stool usually yields a large number of small colonies both of lactose fermenters and non lactose fermenters. Streptococci and small yeasts predominate also late lactose fermenters and lactose fermenters quite different from those in a healthy stool are present in considerable numbers sometimes also the *B. proteus*. A suggestive culture showing such a bacteriological picture should lead the laboratory worker again to search the patient's stools for *E. histolytica* and its value should not be neglected.

The prognosis in the case of the *E. histolytica* carrier is good provided that the medical attendant understands the state of affairs which is present and can gain the confidence and co-operation of the patient. If the condition is not eradicated however the prognosis is not good for the course of health in an untreated *E. histolytica* carrier is frequently one of steady deterioration until he falls a prey to some secondary disease or—in the case of the European—is to be invalided from the tropics.

Treatment

We have tried out all or almost all of the newer remedies for the carrier state and in the end have fallen back upon emetine again because no other drug has given us such consistently good results. For emetine when administered hypodermically to the carrier is far less efficacious than when administered by the mouth and the oral administration of lithium emetine iodide is the line of treatment which has given us the best result. In general

the patients may be divided into two groups (a) those in whose cases hæmolytic lactose fermenting streptococci cannot be isolated from the stool and (b) those in which they are present. In the latter group of cases autogenous vaccine therapy is indicated in addition to oral administration of bismuth emetine iodide.

The *E. histolytica* carrier who is under treatment need not be kept in bed as the ulcers are small and indolent but he should take matters quietly whilst under emetine treatment. Diet is not important but it should be light and nutritious. For European patients milk, eggs, bread, soups, fish and boiled meats may be given. In the case of Indians the rice given should be of the better grades as these are more digestible. *supi* chapatties are useful and the less indigestible dals such as *mung* and *mussoor*. The patient should not be starved but be given a wholesome and easily digestible diet. With regard to alcohol, short drinks and cocktails should be absolutely tabooed for nothing proves so irritating to the ulcerated gut.

Bismuth emetine iodide was first introduced in the treatment of amœbiasis by Dale in 1916. It is a brick red powder which should contain not less than 26 per cent of emetine. The keratin coated or stearin coated pills and the compressed tablets are useless as they are nearly always passed *per rectum* unchanged and the drug—in spite of its nauseating qualities—should be given in powder or in cachet form. It must pass through the stomach without ionizing and is best given on an empty stomach. Patients vary very much in their ability to retain the drug but we have found that with the following plan there is very little vomiting and most patients can take the complete course of treatment without discomfort.

Half an hour before retiring to bed the patient is given either 6 to 10 minims of tinct. opii or—better—Omnopon (Roche) gr $\frac{1}{4}$ th. After he is in bed and as he is getting drowsy the nurse or attendant administers the dose of bismuth emetine iodide gr 2* suspended in 2 drachms of liquid paraffin. This course is given every night for 10 or if the patient will stand it 12 days. Anything less than 10 days seems

Adult male European patients can frequently take gr 3 without discomfort but few Indian patients can tolerate more than gr 2.

An alternative preparation which the junior writer has recently been using a good deal which gives excellent clinical results and apparently good results with reference to the eradication of the infection is Alcresta Ipecac (Lilly and Co). It is stated that each tablet of this preparation contains the alkaloids emetin and cephaline from 10 grains of ipecacuanha (U.S.P.) the alkaloids being held in absorption by hydrated aluminium silicate. It is claimed that after ingestion the tablets disintegrate but that the absorption compound passes unchanged through the stomach and releases the alkaloids only in the alkaline intestinal secretions so that there is no vomiting. For acute amœbic dysentery the makers recommend 3 tablets three times a day. The junior writer has had no experience with this preparation in the treatment of acute amœbic dysentery but it appears to be of considerable value in the treatment of the *F. histolytica* carrier. Two or three of the tablets may be given each night for ten or twelve days and a preliminary dose of opium or omnopon is not usually necessary.

to be useless and short intermittent treatments seem to do more harm than good. After the end of treatment all emetine is suspended and one now commences examination of the stools to see whether the infection has or has not been eradicated. If possible as is often the case with European or better class Indian patients the best plan is to examine one stool a week for six—or preferably eight—weeks.

During the course of treatment a mild emetine diarrhoea may set in about the 6th or 7th day but this should not be allowed to interrupt the course of treatment which must at all costs be continuous if it is to be effective. Children as a rule tolerate bismuth emetine iodide well.

We have not as yet been able to analyze our hospital figures for the last six years but we believe that quite the majority of *F. histolytica* carriers can have their infection eradicated by this course of treatment. If the treatment fails to eradicate the infection the stools should be repeatedly plated or catheter specimens of the urine cultured for hemolytic lactos fermenting streptococci. If these are found an autogenous vaccine is prepared and a course of injections commencing with 10 million and rising to 50 million is given during the next three weeks. When this has been completed and the streptococcal infection of the gut has been brought under control or eradicated the patient is next given a second course of bismuth emetine iodide in lines exactly similar to the first course. This line of treatment will eradicate the infection in quite the majority of cases which prove resistant to the first course of treatment.

It may even be necessary to give three courses of bismuth emetine treatment with long intervals between them.

Where bismuth emetine iodide fails it is the custom of the junior author to prescribe a course of stovarsol treatment—one tablet daily for ten days. In quite a number of cases which fail to respond to bismuth emetine iodide this succeeds; on the other hand it frequently fails though it usually improves the patient's general condition very much. Or Lurchi or yitren may be tried.

During treatment and especially after treatment the patient's bowels must be kept regular and a daily dose of liquid paraffin may be necessary every night. In the thin type of patient with intestinal stasis abdominal massage and enemas therapy (as described in the section on chronic bacillary dysentery) may be required. Iodine and iodine sherbat are also useful as demulcents.

We are convinced that the successful treatment of the chronic *F. histolytica* carrier is not the terribly difficult business that it was generally supposed to be shortly after the Great War.

APPENDIX

TABLE VI

Morphology of the Human Entamoeba

	<i>Entamoeba coli</i>	<i>Entamoeba histolytica</i>	<i>Endo max nana</i>	<i>Isotamoeba b lechl</i>	<i>Discoideum</i> <i>fr g he</i>	<i>Entamoeba</i> <i>gustalis</i>
Quantitative to ml.						
Size	0 to 40 μ Never less than 10 μ	0 to 30 μ Sometimes less than 10 μ	6 to 12 μ	9 to 15 μ	3 to 9 μ	10 to 30 μ
Motility	Sluggish	Very active if fresh	Sluggish	Fairly active	Very active	Active if fresh
Feeding	Scarcely seen	Well seen, fed parasites	Scarcely seen	Well seen in motile amoebae	Very few	Only well defined actively motile amoebae
Feeding podia	Blunt rounded, blunt in tip of endoplasm.	Thin finger-like processes	Blunt	Blunt consist of clear ectoplasm	Fragile when moving amoebae	Round lobose
Color and appearance in fresh state	Like ground glass	Clear or yellowish	Clearish	Transparent	Fragile	Greyish
R.R.C's	Are never ingested	Any ectoplasm containing B.C.s or B.C.s	Never ingested	Never ingested	Never ingested	Never ingested; but the ectoplasm looks like the mucus in stool
Endoosm	Don't look like granules, but like small granules of fine granules of food	Very granular, like B.C.s, but not like B.C.s	Food of food particles	Food of bacteria and food particles	Granular but fragile	Food of bacteria, but not of food particles

[illegible]

CHAPTER VIII

Streptococcal Infections Secondary to Bacillary Dysentery

THERE are three clinical conditions in the practice of medicine in the tropics which we believe to be frequently—or usually—due to secondary streptococcal infection of the gut following after an original infection with the bacillus of Flexner. These are —

- 1 The mucous disease of infancy
- 2 Sprue and lull diarrhoea which diseases especially attack Europeans and only rarely Indians
- 3 A condition of pernicious-like anaemia in young adult Indians often associated with an asthenic diarrhoea. The *sutika* of Indian women during the puerperium is a good example of it

Our reasons for regarding the last two conditions as due to a secondary infection of the ulcerated gut with streptococci after a primary Flexner bacillus infection are (a) the frequency with which haemolytic streptococci can be isolated from the urine or stools of such patients, (b) the frequency with which the sera of such patients give a strong agglutination reaction to a titre of 1:160 against the bacillus of Flexner, and (c) the number of cases of chronic diarrhoea due to infection with the bacillus of Flexner which we have seen pass into one or other of the above conditions. The senior author for example at the time of writing has a case of chronic Flexner bacillus infection in a young European female patient who was gradually passing into a typically pre-sprue condition with pale copious and frothy evacuations whilst a ray examination of the gut after a barium meal shows enormous distension of the gut.

It is only occasionally that the bacillus of Flexner can be isolated from the stool of such patients. Usually in fact the original infection with the bacillus of Flexner has disappeared but the ulcers have become secondarily infected with a haemolytic streptococcus infection which spreads up and down the mucosa of the gut.

Sprue

Ætiology

Sprue is essentially a disease of the European who has been in the tropics for a long time but there is no question that occasional cases occur among Indians—

especially among those of the better class. It is a chronic intestinal disease with periods of remission and relapses characterized by ulcerations of the tongue and mouth, atrophy of the intestinal mucosa of the whole of the intestine and the passage of large frothy pale coloured stools. It is usually seen in Europeans or Anglo Indians who are more than 30 years of age and females seem to be more susceptible to it than males.

There have been many theories as to the causation of sprue which have been put forward and these may be considered briefly first —

1 *The vitamin deficiency theory* This has been stressed by Elders (1919) and Nicholls (1918) in Ceylon where the disease is very prevalent. McCarrison (1919) has produced a sprue like condition in monkeys fed upon a vitamin free diet the intestinal lesions resembling those found in sprue in man. On the other hand sprue is essentially a disease of the well to do European in the tropics and there seems to be no real evidence that it is due to deficiency in vitamins.

2 *The fungal theory* Manson Bahr (1914a) in Ceylon isolated a fungus from tongue scrapings as well as in the oesophageal gastric and intestinal mucus at post mortems on sprue cases and the same organism was cultivated from the spleen liver and kidneys. It was not found in the mucus or contents of the intestinal canal in fatal cases of diarrhoea other than sprue.

Ashford (1915 1915a 1915b) in Porto Rico isolated a similar organism from the faeces of patients with sprue and called it *Monilia psilosis*. He claimed that when cultures of this organism were injected into the tongue of rabbits there resulted a gaseous diarrhoea gradual emaciation and death also that such cultures are intensely toxic to white rats and mice when injected intraperitoneally. Michel (1918) using emulsions of this *Monilia psilosis* as an antigen obtained positive complement deviation in the sera of no less than 400 cases of sprue. Anderson (1917) conducted an exhaustive enquiry into the normal and abnormal fungi of the faeces. He claims that wild yeasts are very commonly present in the faeces of normal individuals but that the pathogenic variety obtained from the stools of sprue patients differs entirely from these wild yeasts and he has renamed the organism *Parasaccharomyces ashfordi*. Dold and Fischer (1918) claim to have experimentally produced sprue by feeding white mice and monkeys with cultures of a similar organism.

On the other hand Manson Bahr (1923) records that all his attempts to produce sprue experimentally in animals with such an organism failed as also did similar attempts by Breinl and Priestley on dogs. Further the same author also records that he has frequently failed to isolate *Monilia* from sprue cases seen in London. The junior author whilst at Shillong isolated an organism roughly corresponding in its morphology and sugar reactions to the so called *Monilia psilosis* of Ashford from three cases but all three strains proved absolutely non pathogenic to white rats and guinea pigs whether on feeding or intraperitoneal injection. Two of the c

patients were treated by an autogenous vaccine prepared by autolysing cultures of this fungus on the lines suggested by Michl and both recovered. One of them was a European female of about 35 who was in such an extremely critical condition that her husband who had just landed at Karachi from Meopotamia was wired for to come immediately. This patient was treated daily by diluting and injections of the autolysed *Monilia* vaccine and made such a brilliant recovery that three months later she won the ladies singles tennis championship at Shillong.

The term *Monilia* has been so much abused in the literature that in passing we would like to point out that the organism described by Ashford is probably an *Endomyces* allied to the *Ordium albicans* of thrush.

Whilst such *Endomyces* organisms are undoubtedly frequently present in the stools of sprue patients yet they are sometimes absent and despite the claim of Gonzalez Martinez (1920) that it has been fully proved that *Parasaccharomyces ashfordi* is the aetiological agent of sprue we regard such fungi as secondary invaders of the gut in sprue. They may be responsible perhaps for the fermentation and frothiness of the stools.

3 *The streptococcal theory* Rogers (1911) as the result of successful treatment of sprue cases with an autogenous oral streptococcal vaccine suggested that sprue was due in the first instance to an oral infection with an organism of *Streptococcus viridans* type the infection passing from the mouth down the alimentary canal. The organism was non-haemolytic but positive complement deviation was obtained with it when the sera of sprue patients were tested. One of the most remarkable patients treated by Sir Leonard Rogers was an elderly Scottish business man who had retired from Calcutta and gradually developed sprue in Aberdeen. This patient reversed all the accepted canons of treatment. He came out from Scotland to Calcutta to be treated by Sir Leonard in Calcutta and as he did not do well in the climate of Calcutta during the hot weather he was sent to Shillong where he came under the treatment of the junior author. He was treated at first with an autogenous streptococcal vaccine and improved up to a certain point, an autogenous autolysed *Endomyces* vaccine was then added to the streptococcal vaccine. The patient made a sound recovery and the junior writer heard from him from Scotland three years later that he was in excellent health.

There can be no doubt that some patients suffering from sprue do very well when treated with autogenous *Endomyces* or streptococcal vaccines, on the other hand others do not and the correlation is a partial one. Usually these injections merely act as would any injection of a foreign protein. In the case of the lady tennis player referred to above the reactions after injection were always very severe so much so that the utmost caution had to be employed in increasing the dose.

4 *The post Flexner bacillus infection view* In the experience of the senior author these cases usually begin as an infection with the bacillus of Flexner. This

does not cause dysentery in these patients so much as an initial diarrhoea which may be of 'hill diarrhoea' type or a chronic diarrhoea contracted in the plains. The blood agglutination reactions frequently show the previous existence of this Flexner bacillus infection. A secondary streptococcal infection of the ulcers next sets in and persists and spreads up and down the gut just as in ringworm of the skin the lesions are often secondarily invaded with a streptococcus which leads to a spreading streptococcal dermatitis or eczema. This leads to inflammation, scarring and atrophy of the mucosa whilst the original infection with Flexner's bacillus is killed out. These patients with diarrhoea due to the bacillus of Flexner are often wrongly given milk with quantities of carbohydrates such as the patent foods and they are particularly intolerant to carbohydrates as a result the indigestion is still further increased. With pancreatic failure—probably due to the action of toxins from the gut on the pancreas—still further intolerance to carbohydrates develops. Finally the *Endomyces* infection sets in as a terminal infection similar to what so frequently happens in cases of pulmonary tuberculosis.

Symptomatology

With the symptomatology of sprue we will deal only very briefly since the subject is so very well described in text books on tropical medicine. An admirable account is given by Manson Bahr (1923-1925).

The onset of the disease may begin with an acute diarrhoea with 'hill diarrhoea' or—much more commonly—with an insidious diarrhoea. This tends especially to affect the patient in the early morning and he passes 2 or 3 stools early each morning light yellow in colour and containing mucus. By degrees the stools become larger more frothy and paler in colour and the patient is now passing 2 or 3 copious and frothy stools early every morning and is relatively comfortable for the rest of the day but is tired and listless.

Loss of appetite next sets in followed by indigestion and acid eructations and the patient tends to gradually confine himself to a diet of liquids or semi solids only. There is now rapid and progressive loss of weight.

With the onset of the characteristic lesions of the mouth and tongue the condition passes from what one may term the pre-sprue state into established sprue. The mouth becomes sore and salivation incessant whilst the patient cannot touch any hot food and deglutition is painful. The tongue becomes red and glazed and aphthous ulcers form on the tongue the lips pharynx etc.

These are the outstanding symptoms upon which clinical diagnosis is based. Turning to the signs of the disease—

The tongue is red and glazed and resembles raw beef. Small aphthous ulcers are frequently present on the tongue gums and lips. These are frequently situated on the tongue opposite the second molar tooth. The mouth is intensely tender

and the patient cannot stand spicy or hot foods, acids or alcohol. There is often a burning pain in the region of the œsophagus on swallowing indicating that ulcers are also present in the œsophagus and mucosa. The patient has by now become emaciated and worn out physically. He is usually rather irritable and the complexion has assumed a peculiar lemon-like or muddy tinge.

The abdomen is swollen and frequently ballooned around and above the umbilicus. Its wall is thin. The intestines are intensely distended so that the abdomen has a peculiar baggy feel on palpation. Cristalæ is frequently visible through the abdominal wall.

The stools are very large, of a faintly yellowish white colour, frothy and full of gas. On microscopic examination numerous fatty acid crystals are seen and sometimes mucus. They are loaded with yeasts and bacteria. Mucus and epithelial debris are rarely present.

The urine is loaded with indican and urobilin.

The blood by all grades comes to present the picture of a pernicious anaemia. The red cell count may be from 1 to 3 millions or even lower. The colour index however is often below 1. The leucocyte count is reduced from 6000 to 3000 per c. mm. and there is an increase in the number of mononuclear and eosinophile leucocytes.

Autopsy. At autopsy on such patients the body is seen to be extremely emaciated and the skin loose, atrophic, dry and harsh. Gædema of the feet is usually present. On opening the abdomen the liver is found to be greatly reduced in size. The intestines are greatly distended and full of faeces. In the upper part of the small intestine the contents may be like stumps but lower down they are white in colour. Sidney Martin and Blyth (quoted by Winsen Baker, 1913) have shown that bile pigment is still present in the stools but that it is present in the form of a colourless compound, kœcobilin, which is a reduction product of hydrobilirubin. If an extract be made with 90 per cent alcohol of an almost colourless (raw stool and the filtrate be exposed to air, a white colourless fluid results which slowly becomes oxidized to a yellow colour and gives the spectrum of hydrobilirubin.

The small and big intestine are greatly distended and the walls so thin as to be hyaline. The serous coat is generally healthy but the muscular coat is almost completely atrophied. The internal surface of the bowel is coated with a thick layer of gray tenacious mucus which conceals patches of erosion and even ulceration together with much thin scoured cuticular patches. The villi and glands are eroded and in many places completely destroyed. Here and there minute spherical induration, about the size of a pin's head and surrounded by a congested streak can be felt in the mucous membrane. On cutting into these one finds them to be cyst-like dilatations of the follicles filled with a mucoid, gummy or mucopurulent material. The erosive lesions are usually most marked towards the lower end of the ileum and the upper part of the colon but the entire

alimentary tract may be affected in patches from the mouth to the anus. The tongue, mouth, œsophagus and stomach usually show small minute ulcers.

Endocrine glands. The thyroid shows a condition of hypothyroidism and fibrosis with loss of colloid secretion. There is hyperplasia of the alveolar epithelium but without secretion. The pancreas is small and fibrosed with changes in the secretory epithelium.

On cultivation of the gut contents no Flexner bacilli are isolated but hemolytic strains of streptococci and *Endomyces* are frequently isolated.

Diagnosis

In diagnosis one relies on (1) the morning diarrhoea, (2) the enormous frothy clay coloured stools, (3) the characteristic glazed ulcers of the tongue, gums and lips, (4) the great and progressive emaciation and (5) the boggy blown out abdomen. The tongue lesions are very characteristic. In huff diarrhoea which we regard as due to infection with the bacillus of Flexner there are no oral lesions and no abdominal distension; this condition however may develop into sprue. In the severe anæmia of Indians associated with asthenic diarrhoea there are no mouth lesions, the abdomen is shrunken and concave and not ballooned, the stools are not frothy but large and yellow in colour. In chronic pancreatitis there are no mouth lesions, there is localized tenderness in the epigastrium and the stools are loaded with fat and show Cammiller's crystals.

Among the complications of sprue one may mention the sudden onset of very severe attacks of diarrhoea persisting throughout the day; these exhaust the patient's strength very rapidly. Meteorism is perhaps a symptom rather than a complication; it may be very severe and make the patient very uncomfortable. Insomnia may be severe and require treatment. With the atrophy of the cardiac muscle from the absorption of toxins cardiac failure may threaten whilst true pancreatitis and true pernicious aplastic anemia may set in.

The prognosis in sprue is always serious but not too bad if one can secure the full co-operation and obedience of the patient. Treatment requires the fullest and most cordial co-operation of the patient, nurse and doctor alike; it calls for patience and perseverance on the part of patients who are often irritable and peevish and the doctor must rule with a firm hand and stand no nonsense.

Treatment

General. The fullest co-operation must be secured from the patient. The extreme gravity of the disease should be explained to him and its dangers pointed out; also the hopefulness of the outlook if he will obey orders. Otherwise he will be asking for pickles or Floater paste. Any case of more than the mildest severity must be kept in bed and carefully nursed.

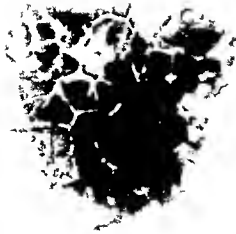


Fig. 2. Angiogram of the 40-year-old patient. The image shows a large, dark, irregular mass in the center of the field of view. The mass is surrounded by a lighter, more uniform area. The overall appearance is that of a high-contrast, black and white photograph of a biological specimen.



Fig. 3. Same patient as in Fig. 2. The image shows a large, dark, irregular mass in the center of the field of view. The mass is surrounded by a lighter, more uniform area. The overall appearance is that of a high-contrast, black and white photograph of a biological specimen.

Diet No end of special diets have been recommended for sprue. Thus we have the milk cure, the raw meat cure and the fruit cure. The straw berry supply of India is a very limited one, but we should think that most of it is consumed by sprue patients, who are often put to considerable expense to secure this delicacy. Change of climate is often an advantage, but not essential. The patient should not be sent on the voyage from India to England unless he is in a condition to stand it, for one can rarely obtain a suitable diet for a sprue patient on board ship, and fresh milk is unobtainable.

As the Flexner bacillus infection has usually died out in these cases, milk is not contra-indicated, and on the whole we prefer a general milk diet supplemented by proteins. The milk must be fresh cow's milk if possible, and if the patient can afford it—as is usually the case—he will do well to purchase his own cow. The milk should not be boiled, but given fresh in small repeated feeds, 2½ or 3 pint during the 24 hours. If the patient is very debilitated, night feeds may be necessary. On the other hand, the patient should not be nauseated with milk, and chopped raw meat, liver, liver soup and fruit may be added. Bananas are well tolerated by such patients, as a rule, and papaya is useful on account of the ferment which it contains. Fresh bael fruit (*Egle marmelos*) is spoken of by Manson-Bahr as being almost a specific for the disease, and it is best taken raw, mixed with sugar. Apples and pineapples are not well tolerated by sprue patients.

Medicinal Treatment

The number of different specific medicinal cures for sprue is even larger than the number of dietary cures which have been advocated. The use even to-day of powdered cuttle fish bones and crabs' eyes shows that the medical profession has still an innate tendency to rely upon the miraculous.

Alkalies—such as sodium bicarbonate, in large doses, 1 to 3 drachms a day in water—have their advocates. We cannot say that we have seen much benefit follow their use.

Yellow sun-baked sandal-wood is undoubtedly of value in some cases. It must be of a rich yellow colour and well oxidized; the white powder is useless. It is given in a grain dose dissolved in a teaspoonful of olive oil twice or three times a day for a week. If the patient does not show any signs of improvement at the end of a week, there is no use continuing with it.

Calcium and parathyroid—H. H. Scott (1927) believes that the essential condition underlying the causation of sprue is a deficiency in the calcium content of the blood due to defective action of the parathyroids. Occasionally it is stated that this has been observed in sprue cases. We believe this calcium deficiency to be a result rather than the cause of the disease, and that the correlation is a partial one. Scott's treatment consists in a very strict diet—usually a diet of fresh milk only—and in administering desiccated parathyroid extract gr. 1/10th twice a day.

and calcium lactate gr 10 to gr 15 three times a day after food. There is no doubt that a few patients rapidly improve on this line of treatment.

Specific Treatment

Here everything depends on the bacteriological findings and the stools should be repeatedly plated. If the bacillus of Flexner is found—though this is not usually the case—bacteriophage may be administered or an autogenous vaccine prepared and given.

Hæmolytic streptococci may be isolated either from the stool on plating more frequently by culture of the urine by the method previously described and most frequently from the ulcers on the tongue or gums. An autogenous vaccine should be prepared from such strains and given in doses of 5 million as the initial dose and gradually increasing the dose every 3rd day up to 50 millions.

It may be necessary to add an autolysed *Endomyces* vaccine to the streptococcal one especially in cases which improve to a certain point and then remain stationary. As the technique for the preparation of an autolysed vaccine is not generally known we may describe it here briefly.

A twenty-four hours growth of the Moulton strain on Sabouraud's agar is taken. Measure the square area of the growth in sq. cms. with a steel rule. Add an equal number of c.c. of sterile distilled water. E.g. if the area of growth is 4 cms. by 1.5 cms. then the square area of growth is 6 sq. cms. and 6 c.c. of sterile distilled water should be added. This gives an emulsion of approximate strength 1 c.c. = 4,000 million organisms.

Next thoroughly emulsify the growth in the distilled water. Pipette off the emulsion into a sterile test tube and incubate this at 37°C for 48 hours. The distilled water dissolves the cells and gives an autolysed vaccine. Add 0.5 per cent carbolic acid to kill the growth and dilute for use to 1 c.c. = approximately 100 millions. Dose—10 million to begin with rising gradually to 100 million.

Local Measures

It is very important in all cases of dysentery to pay special attention to the hygiene of the mouth and teeth. The patient should use a mouth wash of thymol or listerine as a routine measure. The ulcers may be painted with a solution of optochin 1/1,000—which we have found to be far and away the best application in these cases—or with glycothymoline. At night glycerine borax should be applied to them. If there is severe oral pain the local application of cocaine 5 gr. to the oz. may be necessary before meals in order to enable the patient to take food. For œsophageal pain 3 to 5 minims of 1/1,000 adrenalin may be swallowed before the meal.

Complications

The acute attacks of diarrhoea must be combated and liquor opii sedativus may be necessary or even starch and opium enemata may have to be given (for an adult the formula for such an enema is 1 drachm of tincture of opium in 10 ozs. of starch mucilage). For the constipation which so often sets in after an acute

attack of diarrhoea soap and water enemas should be given and castor oil emulsion. In obstinate cases the constant use of liquid paraffin and abdominal massage may be useful. Constipation is particularly distressing to these patient as it increases the abdominal distension and is associated with the passage of large firm white pasty stools.

The muscular pains associated with the disease are best treated by massage and injections of pilocarpine gr 1/10th to gr 1/5th t i d s. For the abdominal and intestinal colic hot wet packs may be given for two hours every morning and evening and are very soothing. If cardiac failure threatens digoxin (Parle Davis & Co) 3 to 5 minim may be given hypodermally twice or three times a day.

For the severe anemia Manon Bahr especially recommends hypodermic or intramuscular injections of arsenite of iron (Squire's liquid extract in 10 minim doses or the Burroughs & Wellcome preparation) at intervals of three days. Some patients do not tolerate iron and salts well by the mouth. The hæmoglobin index must be taken from time to time.

For the dyspepsia and flatulence Manon Bahr (1923) recommends large doses of sodium bicarbonate. The same author also states the value of nutrient enemata or suppositories given every four or six hours and states that if tolerated they are most valuable aids to nutrition.

Stimulants are very bad for these patient. Mental misery is perhaps one of the worst foes of the patient and such patients usually do better when in hospital than when surrounded by over anxious relatives.

II THE FRACTIONAL ANEMIA AND ASTHENIC DIARRHOEA OF INDIANS

This is a condition seen as a rule in young Indian adults of either sex as the result of debilitating condition and is supposed to be chronic bacillary dysentery infection. The *stools* of Indian women in the puerperium is an example of it. The condition of pernicious like anaemia in the male may not be associated with an athermic diarrhoea.

Etiology As shown by its excretion in the urine the micro-organism underlying this condition is a hemolytic streptococcus. It may apparently be derived from several different foci such as carious teeth the gums in pyorrhæa alveolaris a primary or a secondary gastric or duodenal ulcer the site of ankylostome bites or chronic bacillary infections of the colon. The streptococcus can be recovered in plasma the stools sometime more usually by culture of the urine whilst the blood serum frequently shows an agglutination to *Flexner's bacillus* at a titre of 1:100.

Symptoms and Signs

The patient has a pale mulberry complexion which may be compared to the Indian *fulbi* or tumie. Slight edema is frequently present. The tongue is

flabby and resembles wet blotting paper. The conjunctiva is pale and the sclerotic coat of the eye dead white. The lips are dead white also the nails. There is palpitation and dyspnoea on the slightest exertion. The appetite is poor and chronic indigestion is present. The bowels may either be constipated or there may be a chronic and wasting diarrhoea or constipation and diarrhoea may alternate with one another.

Blood The blood picture shows a severe grade of anaemia with a red cell count of from 1 to 3 million per c mm. The hæmoglobin index is 1 or more. The leucocytes range from 4 000 to 6 000 per c mm with a diminution in the percentage of polymorphonuclears and a relative increase in the mononuclears and eosinophiles. Abnormal red cells may be present or the normal red corpuscles may show chromatin dots. Normoblasts are frequently encountered and occasionally giantoblasts.

Severe anaemia of aplastic type is much rarer. Here the red cell count is reduced to less than 1 million and the function of the bone marrow is almost entirely destroyed. The leucocyte count is extremely low being usually from 200 to 500 per c mm. The hæmoglobin value is about unity. No abnormal red cells are seen as a rule owing to the defective action of the bone marrow.

Autopsy At post mortem examination in such cases a condition of pernicious anaemia is found. The liver shows a deposit of iron. The heart is small and atrophic the bone marrow red and oedematous and extending into the shaft of the long bones. In the aplastic type the bone marrow may have almost completely vanished.

Treatment

The prognosis in these cases is always serious but with appropriate treatment is perhaps less serious than was formerly the case. For the aplastic cases but little can be done for the activity of the bone marrow has been almost completely destroyed and only Heaven can supply new organs.

General The regular routine and hours of a hospital are essential for proper treatment though the patient need not necessarily be kept in bed.

Diet is important. The iron of the body is taken in the form of pyrrhol bases obtained from the chlorophyll of vegetables so chopped spinach is very useful in these patients. Bile salts increase the permeability of the intestinal epithelium to pyrrhol bases and hinder the growth of streptococci in the gut and hence liver should be given. It is best administered chopped up fine and very lightly grilled—as nearly raw as possible. Liver soups are also useful. Milk and milk foods may be used and the diet must contain a sufficiency of vitamins.

Specific Treatment Here every attempt must be made to get at the underlying focus from which the streptococcal infection is coming. The teeth should be most carefully examined for caries and pyorrhoea and radiographs of the teeth

may be necessary. A series of x ray photographs of the entire intestinal tract after a barium meal may be necessary to look for gastric or duodenal ulcer or for chronic ulceration in the colon. The hemolytic streptococcus responsible may be recovered from the teeth or from the urine or on plating the stool. If isolated an autogenous vaccine should be prepared and vaccine therapy instituted starting with a dose of 5 million organisms and working up to a dose of 50 million.

As adjuvants in the first place iodine may be indicated as the iodine absorption is often low in such patients. It may be given either intravenously (5 to 10 minims of the tincture well diluted with saline) or orally in milk. A remedy which the junior author has found very useful in the early treatment of such cases and to take over the interval between the admission of the patient to hospital and the isolation of the streptococcus in the laboratory is Hemostyl (Roux's). This is stated to be a serum prepared from horses which are bled after an intensive bleeding the horse's blood is examined at regular intervals and it is again bled at the moment when examination of the blood shows the most intense hamopoietic reaction present. The collected serum is sterilized by five heatings at 55°C and this is called Hemostyl. It is put up in ampoules for hypodermic administration and in the form of a syrup for oral administration. A dose of 10 cc may be given orally daily or on alternate days.

Blood transfusions are usually useless in these cases since a useful right type of blood be used after blood group testing the hemolysis present will destroy this new blood and severe reactions are apt to follow.

As the patient begins to recover on vaccine therapy iron arsenic may be given hypodermically as described under the treatment of sprue.

Complications. If cardiac failure threatens digitalis should be given 5 to 5 minims hypodermically two or three times a day. For cramps which are often present in such cases massage and warmth to the limbs are indicated. Purpura may be a complication and may require injection of calcium etc. The bowel should be kept open if there is constipation by liquid paraffin etc. Ox bile is probably the best intestinal antiseptic to use in such cases and may be prescribed as Barro's, Wellcome and Co's Talbot's this has the purest grade 4 to gr 8 two or three times a day.

Red wines act as both stimulants and sedatives in such cases and may be given in the evening.

CHAPTER IX

Prophylaxis against Dysentery

UNDER the heading of prophylaxis under conditions as they at present exist in India there is unfortunately but little to be said. Were it not for the fact that direct sunlight rapidly kills the *B. dysenteriae* and that complete desiccation is lethal to the cyst of *Entamoeba histolytica* dysentery would probably be the most prevalent disease of the tropics. Moisture is the one essential for the spread of both infections and we are far from certain that water carriage conservancy is the best method of conservancy for cities in the tropics. The rural *ryot* who passes his stool on to the surface of a sun baked field is doing far less harm than is popularly supposed. It is when such faeces are washed down by a fall of rain into the nearest tank or well or stream that trouble begins. And as matters now stand in India it is practically certain that every inhabitant of this peninsula will continue to be continuously exposed to infection for the whole of his life. Even in temperate zones infection may readily be acquired. Dysentery is a part—a very important part indeed—of the price that India pays for her neglect to develop a sanitary conscience.

Where one is dealing with a controlled community as in the Army in hostels or similar institutions and in jails it has been shown by Cunningham (1923) that a large measure of control can be exercised by the *daily macroscopic examination of the stools of all individuals concerned*. The stool of every individual in the community is examined every day for the presence or absence of mucus for eight—or preferably ten—days. Those men who show mucus in their stools are then segregated and laboratory examination of their stools repeatedly carried out. If they are found to be carriers appropriate treatment is instituted and they are required to give a clean negative laboratory record before they are returned to the general community. On examining the stools of 3 160 individuals in four jails in Eastern Bengal once only by this method 111 or 11.88 per cent were found to contain mucus or mucus and blood but on repeated examination of the stools of the same persons for ten days the percentage rose to 22.8 and it was found that at least eight examinations were necessary to detect all carriers. I am convinced he writes that we have in the method which I advocate that is the systematic *macroscopic* examination of the stools a really practical means of dealing with the carrier problem as far as dysentery is concerned. By this means I maintain that the vast majority of the latent and

therefore dangerous carriers, can be separated from any community which is sufficiently under control to permit of a daily examination of their stools. Large numbers of cases can be examined in a comparatively short time and the technique does not call for any special skill on the part of the medical attendant.

In one particular and very small community where this method was systematically adopted the latent typhoid carrier was found to be 30.9 per cent. Those showing mucus in their stools were regarded and an examination of the case histories showed that not more than 9 per cent of the cases of dysentery which had occurred came from this group of persons who with healthy stools only contributed 3 per cent of the abdominal frequency. On segregation and treatment of the carriers the typhoid incidence fell very rapidly and the incidence of dysentery further the mortality rate appeared to be controlled. It will be possible to make a further study of the incidence of dysentery patients in order to see if the incidence of the carriers is not a limiting factor.

In general prophylaxis against typhoid may be summed up in the old world adage: "Carry clean and eat clean." It is important to inspect the stools of all who have to do with the handling of food stuffs and to repeatedly examine. Unfortunately this is rarely practicable. In 1905 a real outbreak of cholera occurred in the nurses' quarters in the Military Hospital Calcutta. The junior author who was in charge of the hospital at that time made a determined effort to secure the stools of all patients in the nurses' quarters for examination. This was immediately followed by a strike. The men were not willing to have their blood taken for an agglutination test against the *Vibrio cholerae* but not to let samples of their stools be taken.

If there is no means of supply the carrier supply it should be chlorinated. Chartish was the man who first introduced the use of such a measure. One of the most important measures to take must exist as attention to the cleanliness of latrines. If there is much dirt it is almost impossible to keep the latrine clean. It should be used most liberally in the latrine and the man should be instructed with his hand with an antiseptic solution after using the latrine. If possible the latrine where the feces are protected from the action of the sun might be better. A campaign against flies is also part and parcel of the hygiene of the house. The housefly is probably not as important in the carriage of the typhoid as the human carrier. As a rule it is the fly which is taken raw must be properly washed in a weak permanganate solution. The kitchen being the chief source of infection in a mess, the kitchen must be kept very clean and measures must be taken to ensure cleanliness in the kitchen while the stool of the cook should be repeatedly examined to ensure that they are not carriers.

During the Great War typhoid was not taken so readily as in many theatres of war. In Egypt and Italy it was found that the addition of a certain amount of oil to the daily diet was a useful measure as it lessened

administration of anti cholera anti typhoid and anti dysentery vaccines. Experiments with mice and rabbits showed that a solid immunity could be produced by the ingestion of heated cultures of the bacilli concerned. Nicolle and Conseil (1922) vaccinated two Europeans by making them swallow killed cultures of dysentery bacilli and 15 and 18 days later respectively made them swallow living cultures. Neither developed dysentery whereas two unvaccinated control persons who swallowed the same cultures died.

The oral use of vaccines appears to have been tested first in connection with an outbreak of dysentery among troops at Versailles in July 1923. Of 546 soldiers vaccinated by the mouth the dysentery incidence was 7.69 per cent as against an incidence of 26.86 per cent among 1070 unvaccinated controls. An epidemic of dysentery broke out in Petrograd in July August 1923. On the 3rd August the Inspector of Hygiene orally vaccinated 1000 of the exposed persons with a vaccine of dead Shiga Flexner and His strains. The subsequent incidence of dysentery was 0.3 per cent amongst the vaccinated and 3.17 per cent amongst the 1768 unvaccinated controls.

In order to secure more intimate contact of the swallowed vaccine with the intestinal mucosa Besredka then went on to advocate the previous administration of ox bile. This increases the absorptive power of the mucosa for the large protein molecules of the vaccine and should increase the immunity conferred. The technique now adopted—Besredka's now well known bilivaccin—is to give on three successive days before breakfast, first a dose of bile followed by a pill containing the desiccated vaccine. The bilivaccin was first tested in connection with an outbreak of typhoid fever in the Pas de Calais. The incidence of typhoid subsequently proved to be 2.3 per cent among 173 vaccinated individuals as against 7.7 per cent among 650 unvaccinated persons. Besredka finally claimed that the new method was harmless, safe and effective.

His paper at the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine met with a very mixed reception. It is hardly necessary to say that it aroused the greatest interest but there were many critics. Dr Ledingham criticized his results with *B. anthracis* and reported that several workers who had tested the oral vaccination had had completely disappointing results. Colonel D. Harvey R.A.M.C. considered that subcutaneous inoculation of vaccine was more suitable than oral administration of tablets in the Army. Dr F. H. Teale stated that in his experimental animals the immunity conferred by oral vaccination was not greater than that resulting from subcutaneous inoculation. Dr W. E. Gye mentioned that ox bile might produce severe diarrhoea in rabbits and his results with the method had had completely negative results.

Since the publication of Besredka's (1922) first paper on bilivaccin almost innumerable reports have been published on the method. Most of these suffer from the one and almost invariable fallacy introduced into such experiments: the vaccine comes into use when the epidemic is declining from natural reasons and

the decline in the epidemic is then attributed to the use of the vaccine. The literature on this subject is now very large but it is in such a state of confusion that it almost defies analysis. It is, however, not to a few of the more important subsequent papers.

Nicoll and Connell (1922) reported the results of anti-dysentery vaccination by different methods among 17 military personnel on a large scale. Subcutaneous vaccination was found to produce a high percentage of reactions that the men who were vaccinated had to be given rest. Intramuscular injections of vaccine were followed by violent reactions and the results were quite unsatisfactory. In 5 Europeans oral immunisation proved to be unsatisfactory when living cultures were subsequently swallowed. Kanu (1923) was working at the Lister Institute with the bacillus of Shiga only with limited immunisation, as a result of immunity by the oral method whereas by the subcutaneous route using killed cultures he obtained evidence of solid immunity in rabbits.

The Red Cross method was adopted by the League of Nations for experimental trial on a large scale and was extensively used for the refugees after the Greco-Turkish War by Gauthier (1924). This worker tried vaccine subcutaneously but found that the reaction was very severe at all times. Sometimes followed. He then used vaccine by the oral route administering it to 29,880 persons. Unfortunately the majority of persons vaccinated could not be followed up. An epidemic of bacillary dysentery broke out in the island of Hydra oral vaccination was resorted to both by physicians and for the treatment of actual cases. The epidemic subsided but the results were not clear.

Issel (1924) recorded the history of dysentery in 1931 in an epidemic at Chalmar sur Mer. To avoid the outbreak of 1931 an epidemic broke out with 6 cases among the 100 inmates—mortality 100 per cent. In April 1931 a second outbreak occurred with 9 cases—mortality 100 per cent. The remaining 91 cases—399 in number—were now all given oral vaccine and only 3 of them—0.3 per cent—contracted the disease. The author noted these figures very suggestive but it is obvious that there are many possible sources of error in the comparison of sets of figures for one year with those for another.

Le Breton and Verhulst (1924) report that killed culture of *Shigella bacillus* are extremely toxic to rabbits on oral administration and a lot of 6 animals to which biologically active were given died within 3 to 5 days. Results with regard to immunity were inconclusive. In 1925 (1925) found that the mortality among rabbits as less on live culture than on the dried culture and even on dried organisms given. Infection again that losses of living organisms was shown by 50 per cent of 10 rabbits immunised by oral vaccine. He concluded that the method gives some protection and is worthy of further study.

C. A. Byer and van Dine (1925) recorded the use of *Bacillus dysenteriae* in connection with an outbreak due to the bacillus of Flexner on a tropical island.

Dutch Navy The whole crew consisting of 348 men were given 1 c.c. doses of vaccine orally daily on three consecutive days there were no disagreeable symptoms and the epidemic was suddenly arrested

Seyfarth (1925) records an interesting incident among Greek refugees in camp at Phalerin 340 refugees were vaccinated by the mouth and transferred to a new barrack alongside those occupied by other refugees among whom dysentery was epidemic They drink the same water which was much fouled and was doubtless the source of the dysentery but the new comers were not affected

Vaz (1925) concludes that it is possible to immunise rabbits successfully against the bacillus of Shiga by the oral route but that a large number of deaths occur among animals so treated death being due to the action of the toxins present in the killed cultures Two strains tested gave a high degree of protection The serum of the immune animals shows antitoxic but not agglutinating power Otten and Kirschner (1925) working with experimental rabbits conclude that oral administration of the vaccine gives better protection than its subcutaneous use but that the immunity is not limited to the intestinal mucosa Alvisatos and Jovanovic (1926) show that in immunised rabbits the duration of the immunity is not indefinite it lasted up to 30 days but not to 45 They conclude that the immunity is not an antitoxic one and that it is at its height 4 days after the cessation of the feeds They point out that in epidemic bacillary dysentery among men all that is required is a relative immunity over a short period of exposure to infection and this they think that oral vaccination will achieve

Fulton and Berry (1927) tried oral vaccination against Flexner's bacillus on infants under 2 years of age in the United States A vaccine containing 400 million each of five different bacillary strains—total 2 000 million bacilli per c.c.—was given every month in the milk feed on three successive days to 107 infants leaving 399 untreated infants as controls The frequency of bacillary dysentery in the two groups however was identical and the oral administration of the vaccine appeared to have no protective action at all These authors note that the production of agglutinins in rabbits by vaccination is no guarantee that the vaccine will afford protection to human beings

Maitra and Basu (1926) tested the bivalent method in four jails in Bengal In all oral vaccine was administered to 1 136 prisoners with no unpleasant effects either immediate or remote Two strains were used (a) a mixed bacillary emulsion of Shiga and Flexner strains from strains locally isolated in Calcutta With this the subsequent incidence of dysentery was as follows —

Number vaccinated	627
Cases of dysentery among the vaccinated	18 or 2.88 per cent
Unvaccinated controls	4 516
Cases of dysentery among the unvaccinated	237 or 5.2 per cent

(b) The second strain used was Bihvaccin Shiga prepared by La Biotherapie of France according to Besredka's formula. Results with this were as follows —

Number vaccinated	509
Cases of dysentery among the vaccinated	11 or 2.16 per cent
Unvaccinated controls	1053
Cases of dysentery among the unvaccinated	47 or 4.46 per cent

These workers conclude that these figures are distinctly promising and that the matter should be tested on a larger scale.

It will be seen from the above brief account that opinion is very divided as to the value of oral administration of vaccines against bacillary dysentery and it is at present quite impossible to give any decision as to whether this method should be employed or not. It seems at least to have the merit of being harmless in man for all reports are in accordance in stating that no ill effects have followed it. The whole matter must at present be considered as being still *sub judice*.

It only remains to add that the method of administration advocated by Besredka is as follows — Two hours before the first meal of the day a tablet containing 20 cgm. of desiccated bile is administered orally followed by a dose of 100 milliards of dysentery bacilli killed by heat. No food is allowed for two hours after the dose and the same treatment is given on two further consecutive days—three days in all.

Bacteriophage may prove to be a most useful agent in prophylaxis against bacillary dysentery if a suitable strain of full potency for the locality concerned can be obtained and Herelle and Malone (1927) suggest that contaminated water supplies may be inoculated with bacteriophage and persons exposed to infection be treated with it orally by way of preventing their contracting the infection.

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(6) The second strain used was *Bihvæsm Shiga* prepared by La Biotherapie of France according to Bastedka's formula. Results with this were as follows:—

Number vaccinated	509
Cases of dysentery among the vaccinated	11 or 2.16 per cent
Unvaccinated controls	1603
Cases of dysentery among the unvaccinated	47 or 4.16 per cent

These workers conclude that these figures are distinctly promising and that the matter should be tested on a larger scale.

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INDEX

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```

Amegh      loc      mod      u d
m d n r f 31
mode f tra m u
y 11 66 4 p 3
pue 11 61 f r t 37
tra      r f 31
An 1 1 1 r j 8
A x 1 1 1 r 31
A w     p     f f h x 113
( f w P m a a m )
Ankifet as
A n     a f m y 31
Appo 1 1 F h e l p     r r 17
Arth 1 1 H x l v t x n
A      f z 14
A d 1 1 f f l n 113 161
A d 1 1 h o l p     a r r 1
A n o f t h o l l v     r 114

```

3 the v r 4 191
 habitation t t 114
 f h f 111
 who is py 1
 l rep 114
 n l am f f 3
 l l n 114
 k t f h m l f 117
 wealth n m 114
 g chology f 110
 y i to l n y 113
 m ten m l l d
 v x l s l

like a disease to you
 if treatment not
 and over the
 and the
 I to a place
 been in place great
 if that in
 in row of the
 I was

Bacillary dysentery—continued

- chronic 109 (see also Chronic bacillary dysentery)
- contagion in 27
- distribution of 1 ions 37
- fever in 29
- findings in stools 80
- fulminant 90
- histopathology of 29
- macroscopic character of stools 4
- medical treatment 93
- perforation in 28
- plating the stools 80
- post mortem findings 3
- predominant causes 93
- relative frequency of 0
- relative incidence of types 4
- seasonal incidence 22
- secondary invaders in 60
- serological diagnosis 93
- streptococcal infections in 113
- symptomatology 3
- treatment 60 119
- treatment of complication 96
- vaccine therapy 23
- Bacillary dysentery acute 3 63
 - clinical 90
 - pathology 90
 - serum treatment 91
 - treatment of 89
- Bacillus aertryce* 85
 - *albifaciens* 11
 - *oreoticus* 66 116
 - *circulans* 66 13
 - *cloacae* 80
 - *coagulans* 66
- Bacillus coli communis*
 - in blood stream 96
 - in mucous retention cyst 110
- Bacillus dysenteriae* 66
- Bacillus dysenteriae* 67 (see also Dysentery bacilli)
 - agglutination test 6 78
 - animal inoculation 81
 - colonies of 71
 - non agglutinating strain 75
- Bacillus enteritidis* 65
 - *faecalis allages* 66 0 73 118
 - *fecaloides* 66
 - *grumae* 66
 - *lunensis* 66
 - *metabolus* 66
 - *netidysenteriae* 66 84

- Bacillus motilis* 68
 - *morganii* 60
 - *musculus capsulatus* 118
- Bacillus of Shiga: anagrobic culture of* 157
- Brevibacterium coagulans* 66
 - *paradisiensis* 66
 - *pristin* 66
- Bacillus proteus* 60 0 137
 - in enterocolitis of infant 16
- Bacillus pseudo-anthrax* 66
 - *pseudo-carolinus* 66
 - *pseudo-morganii* 66
- Bacillus pyocyaneus* 60 66 118
 - and infantile diarrhoea 16
 - infects *B. dysenteriae* 80
 - vaccine of 84
- Bacillus typhosus* 3
- Bacteriophages
 - in bacillary carrier 11
 - in prophylaxis 161
 - treatment by 0
- Bael fruit in syringe 119
- Bael herb 66
- Balanced acid dysentery 40
 - cell exchangers in 0
 - pathology and symptoms 40
 - treatment 107
- Bitritidum coli* 61
 - cultivation of 63
 - cyst of 6
 - incidence in India 19
 - infection in Assam 19
- Barium meal 117
- Bil
 - use of in a theme diarrhoea 153
 - use of in bilivaccine 103
- Bilvaccine 107
 - large scale use of 19
 - mode of administration 101
 - result with 153
 - testing of in rabbits 153
- Bismuth
 - in amoebic dysentery 160
 - in bacillary dysentery 94
- Bismuth emetine: dose 138
- Blastococcus hominis* 5 68
- Blood picture
 - in *Myxococcus xanthus* (Ind 31) 15
 - in sprue 147
- British Army dysentery in 1
- Broth cultures 70
- Brown's opacity standardisation method 80

- C le m a t i p a r a t i y o l t i n a t
 1) chr m b u d l l e r y f w a r y 1
 i t a p e u 149
 C a r c i n o m a o f r e c t u m 17
 C a r r i e r [s e (a) R a c i l l e r r r (b) E h a t d y
 t a r r]
 C a e r r e l n t f a t i n i m m u t i o n
 134
 C a s e m a t i (v r a t) 5
 C a l l a u t i
 i n a m o l l i y a t e r y 45
 i n l a i l l a y d r n r a 43
 n l l n t f i l f r n t e r y
 C l a r e t l a i n a t l 99 170 176
 C l i f f i n l a c i l l e r y d y n t r y n)
 C h i d o n t o r l 19
 C h i r
 m o r t a l t y f e n 4
 m l t i n g d y a n t 5 14
 C h i e r a d y a n t v 9
 C h r m t o i d i l t c e 131
 C l r n a m a b a 14
 C h n o a m a b d y n t e r y 100
 C h r o n o l a i l l e r l y a n t 3
 l g n e o f 116
 y t h o l g e o f 110
 p n a i m 11)
 r a i o n 1 11
 r e t l i r t m 110
 a o n d r y f t n m 113
 n e r 113
 y e p t m t l g e 111
 t r e a t m t 11)
 C i t e
 b t r a i f l o w
 m i l e a n o 5 14
 C h o l k l 11
 C n 104
 C o n r a d D r o g l k n e d m 71
 u o f t e m p t e 155
 C r e a
 f B e n t f m d 17
 f d y n t r e b 11
 f E t t h t l f e 3
 C u l t u r a l a
 C n r a d D g a l k 1
 f a d o 71
 f r B l a n t f m f 63
 f f t n o l e k t y g e
 f t r e p t e x 136
 M C k)
 S a b o u r a u s g e n 74
- C y t
 f E f l x n a n 136
 f F h t o l f w a l t a t i o n o f C)
 C y t f a 57
 D a k f i t h t r e a t m t 100
 D a w
 t l y a n t r y 4
 h a c f l r e a n t r 116
 l a c f l y d y t r y 4 7
 l b h a r s l i t r y 116
 f f t l f t a s 1)
 f l t a 4
 w l a t
 f a p 43
 f u 14
 D h t n e v l n e 7
 D t f f g l 14)
 D
 l l y n t e 161
 t B y d a n t r y 10
 f u n m 1
 f 14)
 D u e r e t l 17)
 D u g f l d n t w 1
 D u f v n s
 D r e x c l e r t t h e t 5
 D l e m e t 115
 D y k h f g l 3
 D y n e r l n e f 16
 D y n e y
 a t p o r y 5
 n k a f l 13
 n l a l a t r a t 8
 n a l m r i a l t y f r o m
 m p l t f l i n 70
 t a n a l m f t
 a n e r l i s n e n
 v e f n l i 19
 f i n t f 16
 f o n e f 63
 h t l e d m n n i f t h
 P t h A r m y 1
 n d n e f 6
 m f r 153
 n f d n A m y 1
 m n f n t 17
 f l 1
 l l r t o r x a n a t n f t o l 43
 r e d a f e c t 41
 r l l y d t o 1

Dysentery—continued

- mortality due to 1
- other conditions simulating 16
- prophylaxis against 154
- seasonal incidence 9
- si endoscopic appearances in 43
- versus diarrhoea incidence 7

Dysentery bacilli (see also *B. dysenteriae*)

- bacteriology of 64
- cultivation of 70
- cultural characters 70
- difficulties in isolation 13
- identification of 74
- in stool stream 48
- in urine 9
- isolation of from carrier 117
- morphology of 68
- non motile 63
- precipitation of 118
- proportion of successful culture 40
- staining reaction 69
- toxin of 81

Emetin (see also Esmuth emetine 113)

- action of on *E. histolytica* 97
- toxic effects of 90
- treatment of amoebic dysentery 93

Endocrine system

- in chronic bacillary dysentery 110
- in sprue 148

Endocrine therapy in chronic bacillary dysentery 107

Endolimax nana

- cyst of 136
- morphology of 140

Endomyces in sprue 14

Endo's medium 71

Entamoeba coli 140—*gingivalis* 140*Entamoeba histolytica*

- action of emetine on 97
- carriers (see below)
- cultivation of 51
- cultivation of from cyst 10
- cyst of 131
 - chromatoid bar in 131
 - dimensions of 13
 - excystation of 33
 - glycocalyx in 131
 - infectivity of 3
 - phases of development 135

Entamoeba histolytica—continued

- resistance of 30
- viability of 31 13
- developmental phases 36
- geographical distribution 31
- incidence of infection 31
- infection of bacteriology 60
- morphology of 54 140
- nuclear characters 51
- pre-cyst of 131
- vegetative form 4
- E. histolytica* carriers 14
 - amoebic showers in 19
 - by mouth emetine radical treatment 105
 - colic in 126
 - constipation in 107
 - diagnosis by post 136
 - diagnosis of 106
 - diet in 139
 - fever in 127
 - hepatitis in 108
 - in idiosyncrasy of 186
 - Koch's treatment 19
 - laboratory diagnosis 130
 - leucodermis in 109
 - pathology of 14
 - prognosis of 137
 - radioscopic examination 10
 - role of 31
 - signs and symptoms 1
 - surgical treatment 133
 - streptococcal vaccines 139
 - streptothrix infection in 10
 - treatment of 137
 - types of 10

European dysentery in 8

Fasciolopsis busi 19

Fever

- in bacillary dysentery 93
- in *E. histolytica* carriers 107

Fever mortality from 3

Flagella stain for 69

Flexnera bacillus (see also *B. dysenteriae* and

- Dysentery bacilli)
 - agglutination of 70
 - colonies of 74
 - incidence relative to Shiga's bacillus 4
 - saline reaction 17
 - toxins of 8

- Neurasthenia in bacillary carriers 115
 Nitroso indol test 75
 Non agglutinable strain 7
- Opamepon 134
 Opium use of 94
 Optochin mouth wash 100
 Osmolal number 10
- Paradimethyl amino indole naphthyl test 14
Parasaccharomyces fordii 144
- Pathology
 acute bacillary dysentery 3
 amoebic dysentery 33
 bacillary carrier 110
 chronic bacillary dysentery 110
 E. histolytica carrier 14
 relapsing amoebic dysentery 106
 sprue 147
- Perforation
 in amoebic dysentery 33, 101
 in bacillary dysentery 3
- Pernicious anemia
 and methic diarrhoea of Indians 11
 blood picture in 10
 complication in 103
 diet in 15
 findings at autopsy in 15
 Hæmoglobin in 103
 iodin in 153
 iron arsenite injections in 153
 liver in 15
 oxalate in 153
 streptococcal vaccines 153
 streptococci in 151
 symptoms and signs 151
 treatment of 153
- Pilocarpin injection in sprue 101
 Placental mortality from 5
- Polypus
 formation in bacillary dysentery 111
 of rectum 17
- Polyvalent antiserum 91
 Poona type 91
- Post mortem findings
 in pernicious anemia of Indians 15
 in sprue 147
- Potomacum 10
- Pottery and dysentery 8
- Pregnancy and dysentery 9
- Preliminary agglutination test 76
- Pressor bases 89
- Prognosis
 in *E. histolytica* carrier 137
 in sprue 149
- Prophylaxis against dysentery 104
 icterophages 161
 bismuth 157
 care of kitchen 155
 care of latrines 155
 E. histolytica carriers 156
 examination for carriers 154
 in the Great War 105
 in microscopic examination of stools 154
 oil in dietary 105
 oral vaccines 107
 sero vaccines 157
 vaccines 106
- Pyrexia poisoning 18
- Quinine rectal injection 120
- Radiology
 in chronic bacillary dysentery 117
 in *E. histolytica* carrier 10
- Rainfall and dysentery 13
- Rats possible transmitter of *E. histolytica* 33
- Rectal irrigation 119
- Red cell characters of in amoebic dysentery 49
- References 173
- Relapsing amoebic dysentery 106
- Relative mortality from different diseases 2
- Respiratory distress mortality from 3
- Sabouraud's agar 74
- Saline emulsion of stool 16
- Salt 94
- Santonin in sprue 149
- Schistosoma mansoni* 10
- Shistosoma* 75
- Seasonal incidence of dysentery 9
- Secondary invaders 65
 B. albifaciens 11
 B. coli 110
 in chronic bacillary dysentery 118
- Serum sickness 96
- Serum treatment of bacillary dysentery 91
- Shistosoma bacilli (see also *B. dysenteriae* and
 dysentery bacilli)
 incidence of 14

signs bacillus—continued

gas reactions 7

toxins of 81

vaccines of 85

vaccine & of dosage 87

gastro scope 43

in amoebic dysentery 41

in bacillary dysentery 44

in chronic bacillary dysentery 110

loughs in amoebic dysentery 37

local effects and dysentery 8

Spinach in pernicious anemia 15

Sporochytes in stools 48 49

Spru 143

stology of 143

alkalis in 143

as sequel to bacillary dysentery 145

bael fruit in 149

blood picture in 147

calcium and parathyroid treatment 149

care of the mouth 149

complicated relation in 144 146

complications of 144

diagnoses of 145

diarrhoea in 145

dysentery 149

endocrine glands in 145

in lactation in 151

milk diet 150

Mulberry leaves 150

P. ranochana goes a/l of 144

locarpena in 141

local in relation findings 147

lormos in 149

lotion in 149

stools 147

streptococcal dysentery 14

streptococcal dysentery in 10

streptococci in 140

symptomatic dysentery 146

thrombocytopenia 144

tongue in 147

treatment of 144

trivalent dysentery 150

vaccine in 84 140

vitamin D in dysentery 144

Stains

for dysentery bacilli 86

for flagella 83

Staid in relation to 83

Staphylococcus in 83

Sto is

amoebic dysentery 39

bacillary dysentery 39 41

characteristics in amoebic dysentery 4

chronic bacillary dysentery 112

evolution of 53

P. histolytica case 110

in relation to dysentery infections 137

polymicrobial of 47

laboratory examination of 45

in relation to dysentery 45

pathological 13

reaction of 46

salmonella in 46

sporochytes in 49

stain 147

Sto is in amoebic dysentery 103

Streptococcus in relation to 143

Streptococcus in 13

Streptococcus in 13

Streptococcus in 130

Streptococcus in 151

Streptococcus in 151

Streptococcus in 140

Streptococcus in 130

Streptococcus in 130

Strong bacilli 5

Sugar reaction 77

Symptoms in bacillary dysentery 83

Symptoms 143

Symptoms in bacillary dysentery 83

Symptoms in 14

Symptoms in 112

Symptoms in 40

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Symptoms in 111

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Symptoms in 111

Treatment—continued

- ~~Sal~~antidial dysentery 107
- chronic bacillary dysentery 113
- E. histolytica* carrier 137
- pernicious anaemia of Indians 159
- sprue 148

Tropical neurasthenia 115

Tubercular enteritis 17

Urine bacteria in 87

Urticaria 114 197

Vaccines

- Bilivaccin 157
- dosage of 87
- in bacillary carrier 199
- in bacillary dysentery 83
- in sprue 84
- Monilia in sprue 150
- of secondary organisms 84
- oral use of 107
- preparation of 85
- prophylactic use of 106
- sero vaccine against *Shiga* bacillus 157

Vaccine 2—continued

- ~~Shiga~~ bacillus 80 1 6
- standardisation of 80
- streptococcal 139
- streptococcal in sprue 109
- tests for sterility of 87
- use of anaerobic cultures 107
- Viability of *E. histolytica* cyst 100
- Vincent's infection in intestine 43
- Viscerotomosis 114
- Vitamines and sprue 144
- Voges Proskauer reaction 81

Water supplies and bacillary dysentery 23

Yat'en

- in amoebic dysentery 100
- in bacillary dysentery 94
- Y. bacillus* 7
- Yeast in amoebic stool 137

Zettnow's stain for flagella 60

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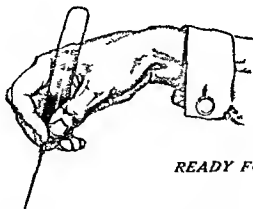
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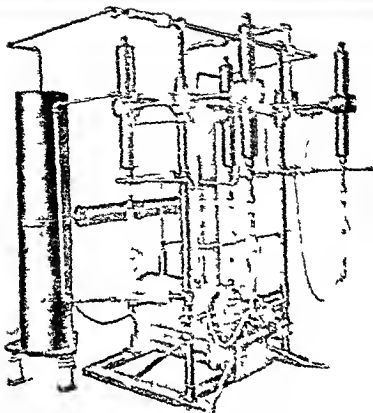


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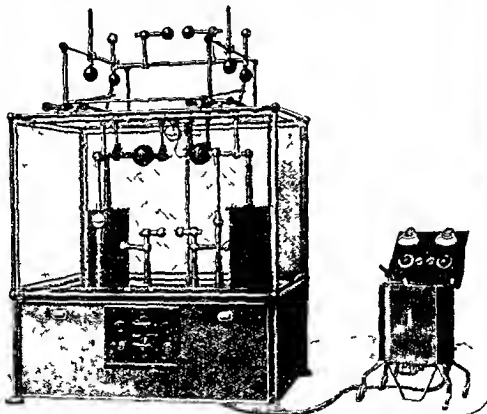
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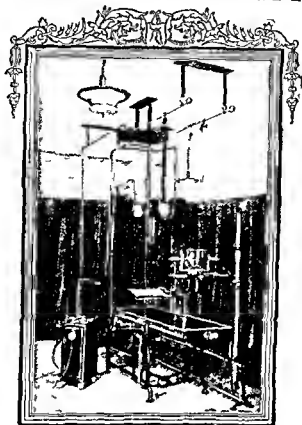
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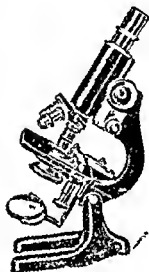
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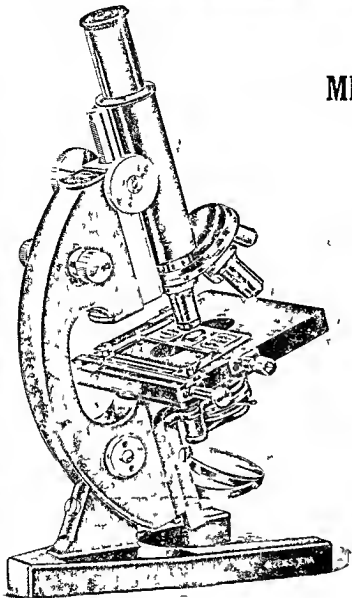
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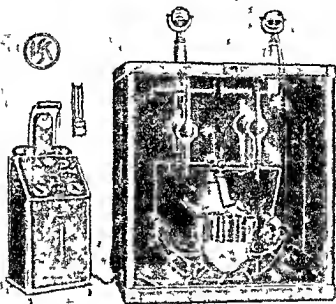
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